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A WEEKLY JOURNAL

DEVOTED TO

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE & ART

VOLUME LXXVIII

FROM JANUARY 1, 1904, TO JUNE 30, 1904

NEW YORK

NEW YORK EVENING POST COMPANY

1904

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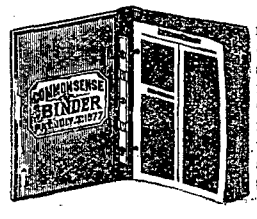

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 7, 1904.

The Week.

While every one must regret Secretary Hay's disablement from ill health, there are some obvious advantages in having the Colombian negotiations turned over to a trained lawyer like Mr. Root. It is on the legal side, next to the moral, that the Administration's case has been throughout weakest. Secretary Root was in Europe when the blundering policy was undertaken, but immediately upon his return was credited with having induced the President to abandon one part of his rash plan—that to stop British merchantmen on the high seas. It was an instance of a cool-headed lawyer fearing to tread where impetuous statesmen rushed in. Irrespective of what is past, however, the present state of the case calls for legal acumen of a high order. The document which Colombia has presented in protest is a legal document; its contentions relate to the interpretation of law and treaty. Those things must mean more to a lawyer than to the mere diplomat. The latter may be disposed to take his wishes for the law, and to say, as Mr. Hay did when squarely asked why this Government would not allow Colombia to land troops in her own territory, "It is not thought desirable." A lawyer in his place would have anxiously inquired, "Where is my warrant?" All these and many other legal questions are now to be pressed upon the attention of the Administration more seriously than ever. We count it fortunate, therefore, that its special representative is to be a man skilled in the law.

The *Sun's* Washington correspondent says that the Administration is anxious for the ratification of the new Panama treaty because most of the President's advisers believe that the treaty of 1846 authorizes us only to keep transit open, leaving us with no right to take more drastic action to defend the Republic of Panama. These advisers are cold comforters, for has not the President himself already interpreted the treaty to mean that he may prevent all fighting on the Isthmus? Before there was a sign of a revolution, orders were issued to our navy to prevent the landing of Colombian troops within fifty miles of Panama or Colon. If Mr. Roosevelt must now have a treaty in order to do that sort of thing to protect Panama, he plainly confesses that he acted without legal warrant when he aided the incubating Republic of Panama. Such a course does very well, Mr. Roosevelt seems to feel, when there is nobody but a supersensitive press to criticise it. When Congress is in session, however, it is convenient to act under treaty. It looks better, keeps the Democrats quiet, and pleases Senator Hoar.

To suppose that the Colombians will be content with a sop thrown to them by Panama out of the $10,000,000 purchase money, or with the assumption of a portion of their national debt by the extemporized republic, is absurd. Strange as it may seem to some Americans, the Colombians are a high-strung, proud, and sensitive people. They feel about the shearing away of Panama just as we should about the cutting off of Florida from our country by a *coup de main*. Consequently, we may be confident that the hopes of Gen. Reyes and his colleagues look to some larger and more thorough-going adjustment than any mere money payment. It is more than foolish to talk about the Administration's being bound to "stand firm" and "yield nothing." Why should it stand still, firmly or otherwise, when by moving in a new direction it could accomplish its main object better? It is clear that new developments are to be expected. Colombia's present offers are, we believe, of a nature to make it entirely feasible for the President to end the whole controversy in a way satisfactory to all concerned.

Conservatism was the keynote of the utterances at the Democratic dinner on Monday night. Mr. Cleveland's letter closed with the words, "a safe and conservative Democracy." Mr. Hill cried out, "Fellow-Democrats, the people want a safe, consistent, level-headed, conservative administration." Mr. Olney, however, was the most important speaker, and his deliverance had the greatest significance. After detailing Democratic policies in foreign and in domestic affairs—"observance of treaties and obedience to international law," "respect for the rights of every nation, however small," "without making rumors and trivial events the pretexts for military demonstrations in foreign parts"—Mr. Olney added, "We have had a surfeit of sensations and of spectacles, and need a rest. We need it to recover our equilibrium." In short, the Eastern Democrats are giving plain warning that they regard safety and conservatism as the strongest issues. As Mayor McClellan phrased the appeal to the country at large, "Wherever they are to-night, in the East or the West, in the North or the South, let all Democrats hear our avowal." The candidates who are suggested also represent the conservative Democracy—Cleveland first of all, and Mr. Olney and Judge Parker. Whether or not we take Mr. Olney's tribute to Mr. Cleveland as a serious effort to bring him into the field, it is clear that delegates who enter the convention prepared to support an old-line Democrat are not likely to be stampeded for any man of the Bryan stripe.

With possibly two exceptions, Mr. McClellan's selections betray his readiness to accept the old Tammany doctrine that to the Wigwam workers belong the spoils. The men who got out the vote or worked at headquarters are the ones whom he has primarily considered in distributing his favors. Even his best appointees, Mr. McAdoo and Mr. Crain, are men who took an active part in the campaign against the good-government forces. Mr. McClellan, in thus limiting his choice, is in striking contrast to Mayor Low, some of whose best commissioners—Folks, De Forest, and Lederle—were practically unknown outside of what may be called professional circles. In retaining Commissioner Woodbury in order to placate independent Democrats, he has chosen one of the least eminent of Mayor Low's lieutenants, whose work has disappointed the public and has fallen below the Waring standard. The selection is, moreover, recognized in its true aspect as another exception which proves the Tammany rule. The most sinister aspect of the incoming Administration is, after all, the domination of Murphy. The fact that there is another boss in Tammany Hall, who has risen by way of the saloon, with bedraggled garments, stares us in the face, just as we are compelled to witness in the Republican party the supplanting of one "State leader" and autocrat by another. It cannot be ignored or belittled. The next two years Murphy will devote to strengthening himself and his position by means of a tool who relies upon his own feeble powers to counteract the evil influences of corrupt or inefficient commissioners, and is quite unable to see that a dozen police captains may nullify the reform efforts of a McAdoo.

Through the decision of the Supreme Court on the Gonzales case, the Porto Ricans are promoted from an anomalous position to that of "nationals" of the United States of America. Isabella Gonzales, a Porto Rican, was, on the 4th of August, 1902, denied admission at the port of New York. Commissioner Williams took the ground that she was an alien immigrant, likely to become a public charge, and thus liable to exclusion under the Immigration Act of 1891. On appeal, the Supreme Court

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decides that the Porto Ricans, owing no allegiance to any other Power, are "nationals" of the United States and entitled to freedom of passage. In other words, they are virtually subjects, and under conditions which are generally applied, say, to natives in the French colonies, or to our own Indians; they are entitled to all civil rights under our Constitution and laws, but must acquire political rights (citizenship) by naturalization. (The Court expressly declines to consider the question of citizenship.) No one can doubt that the decision is in accord with substantial justice, but its full implications should be faced. The Filipinos, too, are our "nationals," and are entitled to pass freely and do business in our territory. It will be impossible to exclude them under any provisions of the Immigration Act. Here is only a hint of the embarrassments of a republic which injects into its body politic a great class of people who are neither citizens nor aliens. The logic of the situation is to prepare our "nationals" for citizenship with all expedition, or, should they seem undesirable as citizens, to restore them to their real status as aliens. The Supreme Court, in recognizing the national rights of the Porto Ricans, is tacitly making a strong argument for the independence of the Philippines.

The Boston Custom House episode should be a lesson to Secretary Shaw. He seemed to think that if he wanted to abolish the "release-bond" practice, the only thing he needed to do was to say so in plain terms. That may be the proper method out in Iowa, but in Boston they have always had a way of asking for the reason of things. And if they do not like the reason, they are apt to talk. Some persons over there seem to think that they have found the real reason for the recent bond-release ruling. It is said that politics is at the bottom of the affair. The collector, it appears, is a personal friend of Senator Lodge, and in overruling him the Secretary of the Treasury has trod on the toes of the Nahant statesman. Possibly Mr. Shaw could have effected his end without all this fuss if he had used a little Boston politeness. His direction to Collector Lyman to "go ahead and fix things, and I will see that you do not lose your official head," was in shocking taste. No wonder the Collector was "hurt," and called in Senator Lodge. But the Senator has his own ground of complaint. It was an ill-mannered act for the Secretary to make an important ruling in the Boston Custom House entirely on his own initiative. Massachusetts has no official Republican boss, but names are of no consequence. Senator Lodge and President Roosevelt have for more than twenty years been the warmest kind of political and personal friends to no purpose if the Senator has to refer the Boston merchants to the Secretary of the Treasury every time they come to him to help them fix things at the Custom House. No wonder it is said that Washington will hear from Mr. Lodge on this subject. It is time for the real status of the Secretary of the Treasury to be determined.

Increasingly vigorous protests are made against Gov. Pennypacker's plan to leave the Governor's chair for a seat on the Supreme Court bench of Pennsylvania. The leading newspapers of both parties are unanimous in their condemnation of the proposed turning over of the State government to the worst kind of Quay machine politician—Lieut-Gov. Brown. They declare that Brown could not be elected Governor on any ticket, and are of the opinion that Gov. Pennypacker's preëlection pledge to serve out his term should in honor prevent him from resigning now. At a public discussion in the North Broad Street Baptist Church of Philadelphia on Sunday week, a majority of the speakers criticised the Governor's course very severely, and with the entire approbation of the audience of five hundred men. But Senator Quay has assured the Governor of his hearty sympathy with the proposed "promotion," and it is therefore generally believed that this disgraceful deal will go through. As for the Governor, it is evident that his career is one which is worthy of the analytical powers of our best psychologists.

The appointment by Mayor Weaver of Philadelphia of a committee of public safety to report upon the theatre conditions in that city points the way for similar action by Mayor McClellan. The contradictory opinions as to the safety of our playhouses with which the press has been filled, merely emphasize the need of an authoritative finding. The new Fire Commissioner has been prompt in ordering an inspection of the fire curtains, and some managers have shown alacrity in opening their fire exits after every performance. But the published insurance rates for the various theatres show clearly that more important matters are involved, and it is extremely significant that some of the newest theatres are charged very high rates. What the public should know is whether in those cases where the proper exits are hampered by doors swung at right angles, by steep stairs leading down from the balconies, and by turns in the passageways to the street from the orchestra, the authorities cannot demand immediate alterations to safeguard the theatre-goers. Safeguarding the scenery is not the only requirement of the hour. Buildings in which large numbers of people assemble for any purpose should be rendered panic-proof as well as fireproof, if this is in any way possible. Mayor Harrison's radical action in closing all of Chicago's playhouses shows what a thoroughly aroused executive can do when he realizes the necessity of promptness and thoroughness.

In view of the differences of opinion among experts as to the security of our places of amusement, Mr. Perez M. Stewart's suggestion that there should be a committee of public safety to pass upon them has very considerable merit. Mr. Stewart was impressed with the necessity of such a body while Superintendent of Buildings in Manhattan, and particularly after the Park Avenue Hotel fire, with its needless loss of life. While the present Building Code has perhaps more stringent requirements than any similar municipal regulations, the responsibility for the lives of those who frequent halls, theatres, hotels, and restaurants is divided among the police, fire, and building departments. Some theatres are old and antiquated, but are beyond the reach of the law so long as they comply with certain technical requirements, such as asbestos curtains, etc. Frequently, too, they are wedged in the centre of blocks, and, therefore, have practically only one exit for orchestra and balconies. A commission of experts could easily be procured to pass upon these places of amusement and certify to their condition. Even if legislative sanction for such a committee should be required, it would be promptly forthcoming at this time. A certificate of safety from a body like this would be money in the pocket of every manager possessing one, as well as an asset to be advertised.

Pennsylvania is the latest State to feel the need of a rural police under control of its State authorities. For three months past the commonwealth has been disgraced by a series of crimes of violence in several districts, which shows clearly that the lawless elements have the upper hand. The Philadelphia *Press* reports that a lonely couple is tortured about every week; that houses are plundered, and that men working in isolated places, such as signal towers, are constantly in danger of being robbed and murdered. The *Press* attributes this epidemic of crime to the immigrants who have flocked to the State, and also to men who have been bred to violence by local disorders, as in the iron and coal regions. As in other American States, the only protection is provided by sheriff, constable, or watchman, and how precarious that is, every one knows who has ever lived in a rural community. Therefore, the remedy seems to be a State police patrolling the roads and supported in part by the localities served, and in part by State taxation. The same plan has elsewhere been advocated as a preventive of lynching, or in order to bring about the enforcement of certain laws.

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In New York the need of a State police is most felt when it comes to the enforcement of the excise law. Take the Hudson River villages, for example. There is hardly one of them in which the statutes in regard to the sale of liquors are not persistently and openly violated. The officials whose sworn duty it is to enforce these laws are chosen by the voters of these same villages, and they are, therefore, content to wink at abuses and violations lest they be retired to private life at the next election. To many observers the only hope is a permanent State police to back up the now ineffective State inspectors. Its members could be shifted from county to county whenever they became too familiar with any one district. Such a force, if mounted, could also be assembled quickly for riot or strike duty, and, if properly handled, would be very much more effective than a similar force of militia. This argument should especially appeal to Pennsylvanians, who have had to pay out large sums for the National Guard in the long strike campaigns every other year for more than a decade. But, wherever tried, to be of any value, such a State police would have to be officered by men of military training, and would have to be entirely divorced from politics. It should follow the methods of the English county constabulary or the *gendarmerie* of France and Germany.

The report of the State Superintendent of Banking treats of some very important subjects. These include compulsory examinations, restriction of investments by trust companies, compliance by foreign trust companies with the restrictions of this State, cash reserves by trust companies, and weekly statements by trust companies and State banks. Most of these subjects have been threshed over before, but the promotion of "hazardous and experimental schemes" by trust companies is practically a new theme. The great underwriting deals of the last few years have in a very great number of cases failed to meet the expectations of those who went into them; but it is only during the past year that this fact has been demonstrated. It was not so very long ago that underwriting large industrial projects was considered a very safe and highly profitable business, and there was every temptation for many of the trust companies to go in for it. Owing to their not having to make public their affairs, as do the national banks, it has been difficult to form an opinion as to how far they have been affected by the setback to industrial underwriters. Doubts on this point have played their part in Wall Street in recent months, and no one will now question the wisdom of rigidly curtailing this kind of business in the future.

The best evidence that the industrial situation is sound at heart is the resumption of operations by mills which had been obliged to shut down. Every day adds to the list of these, and reveals a very interesting economic process. The mills did not raise wages until everything else had gone up on them. When the stock market brought about a prolonged period of tight money, consumers could not afford to pay so much for goods as formerly. It was necessary for the mills to bring about cheaper production, and the first step was a wage reduction. Manufacturers showed their good sense by quickly realizing the necessity of lower prices. The question was, Would the labor element be as quick to see the part they should play? When mills began to close all over the country, there was ground for apprehension, but it now appears that the shutdowns have in most instances been merely incidental to the adjustment of labor to new wage conditions. The frequent reopenings show that the labor element has in the main recognized the demand of the situation. The result is that the year ended without the widespread dislocation of industry which some people feared.

From the bare press reports it is impossible to judge of the activities of the Carnegie Institution. But, pending the distribution of the Year Book, it should be said that the drift towards research in the natural sciences is as marked as ever. To be sure, grants were given last year to the veteran Orientalist, Dr. Ward, for deciphering West-Asian seals; to Mr. Worthington C. Ford for calendaring the American archives at the Congressional Library; to Dr. Putnam for compiling a much needed directory of learned societies—but these were exceptional concessions to the historical sciences. That the Institution declines to subsidize systematic investigation in logic and metaphysics must be taken, we trust, not as evidence of contempt for philosophy as such, but of absence of attractive proposals in that field. But the scientific prepossessions of this unique foundation for research make it doubly desirable that it should be generous to the few really promising enterprises proposed in behalf of the humanities. In this regard Professor Seymour's report on sites for excavation in the Hellenic territory, and Mr. Pumpelly's preliminary account of vestiges of Mongol civilization in Trans-Caspia, deserve the friendly attention of the trustees. That the latter investigation might clear up obscure chapters in the history and archæology of Asia, readers of Sven Hedin's latest books of travels are fully aware.

The enthronement of a Roman Catholic archbishop at Westminster is an event of more than passing significance, for the ceremony did not take place humbly, but in a new cathedral which in certain respects rivals St. Paul's—the only church of the first architectural importance built by Protestants. Critics will differ as to the merits of Bentley's great basilica at Westminster. Many will regret its close adherence to Byzantine modes, but no person of taste will deny the impressiveness of the interior and the beauty of the fenestration, which is surpassed only in old Westminster itself. Pious Catholics will see in it a symbol of the Church Triumphant. They will recall that, since Mary's time, the Church, dispossessed of the great places of worship it had built, has lived a hole-and-corner life in England. The erection of a metropolitan church, quite as ambitious as any of the lost cathedrals, seems to mark the passing of the mission stage of Roman Catholicism in England. That the fact is viewed in a friendly light by the Protestant press, is a welcome sign of growing tolerance.

"A prudent lord," says Machiavelli, "should not keep faith when such keeping turns to his disadvantage." It is seemingly from this feeling that France will refuse to be bound by treaty to join the mad adventure of Russia in the Far East. Doubtless M. Delcassé, who is actively trying to bring the Russian Foreign Office into a peaceful mood, tacitly accepts Machiavelli's apology. "This counsel [of not keeping faith] would not be good if all men were good; but since they are bad, and do not keep faith with you, you need not keep it with them." But, of course, the French have a better reason for keeping out of the Far Eastern imbroglio. It is no affair of theirs; its scope was not foreseen when President Faure and Alexander III. exchanged toasts at Cronstadt, while practically France would have much to lose and nothing to gain in saving Russia's Korean chestnuts. There was, then, from the first a probability that the Dual Alliance would break down when applied beyond the Urals. Baron Hayashi, as reported in the dispatches, apparently has definite assurances that France will maintain a neutral attitude in the event of war. Here is unmistakably seen a first effect of the Anglo-French *entente*. The two nations are earnestly seeking peace at St. Petersburg. One cannot doubt that this common action will draw England and France still closer together, and will leave France in a merely platonic attitude towards the ally from whom she has received so little. Clearly we may expect a new shuffle of the diplomatic cards. France and England, with Italy, very likely, would form an alliance against which Germany and Russia might desire to combine forces. Thus the uncertainty in the Far East will probably result in a considerable readjustment of the European balance of power.

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THE PRESIDENT ON THE DEFENSIVE.

President Roosevelt has heard from the country. He knows now, what he did not appear to dream of when he wrote his easy paragraphs about Panama in his annual message, that his course is open to serious objection. It has been challenged by men of weight in his own party, to say nothing of the independent press, on grounds of both morality and law. It is no longer possible to whistle down this opposition, or to put us off with the comfortable assurance that the President can do no wrong. Mr. Roosevelt himself has seen the need of attempting his own defence; and he makes it at great length in the message which he sent to Congress on Monday.

It produces no new facts, even with the extensive aid of a newspaper-clipping bureau, though it misstates some old ones. Thus, the President says that, just before the Panama revolution, he was thinking of "going to the Nicaragua route." But he has before stated that he had given that up as impracticable, on the advice of the most competent engineers. He also remarks that the idea of constructing the canal by "private enterprise" had long since been given up by this Government. Why, then, did it agree, in the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, that it might be constructed "either directly at its own cost, or by gift or loan of money to *individuals* or *corporations*"? Nor would his assertion that the orders to our naval commanders this year were of the same tenor as those of 1901 and 1902 bear examination. There is a sinister difference. Previously, the instructions had been simply to keep transit open, and last year Secretary Moody allowed Colombian troops to be transported; this year the orders were to keep Colombia from landing a force anywhere within fifty miles of the Panama railroad—that is, practically, anywhere on the Isthmus.

All these minor matters, however, are of small account beside the grave questions of law and policy which the President discusses. He frankly admits now that his course has been irregular. The recognition of Panama was, he surprisingly declares, "in no way dependent for its justification upon our action in ordinary cases." Mr. Roosevelt confesses that the "general rule" is against him. This is a great advance since November and December, when he was asserting that he had but done what this Government had "always" done. He does not deny to-day that "a new state should not be recognized as independent till it has shown its ability to maintain its independence." That is, he acknowledges that the precedents and the rules are adverse to the course he has followed. Then what is his defence? Why, simply that our "national interests" and "the interests of civilization" demand that we take this extraordinary and lawless step! In other words, when we want a thing intensely, we are entitled to trample upon propriety and the law in order to get it!

Now it is unnecessary to remind an historical student like President Roosevelt that every execrated political crime, every ruthless act of conquest, every wicked oppression of the weak, has been justified by its perpetrators on precisely this ground. Has he never read Napoleon's proclamations? That giant despoiler of the nations held exactly the language of President Roosevelt—all his plundering and murdering was for the "national defence" of France and the good of humanity. It is more than a coincidence that the President cites the words of Secretary Cass. They were written at the time when the slave-holding Democracy of this country was looking everywhere for new lands to subdue and pollute, and only shortly after that infamous Ostend manifesto which the first Republican platform denounced as "the highwayman's plea." What would those founders of the party have said had they conceived it possible that a Republican President in 1904 would make that plea his own?

What we say is that, with such principles of action avowed by the President, no country is safe from his aggressions. This Government was founded as a government of law. When the Executive sets the army or navy in motion, he must be able to point to warrant in the Constitution or in the statutes. But here we have Mr. Roosevelt erecting as the true standard the "national interest"—or what *he* conceives to be the national interest. Apparently, this chivalrous President intends for the present to confine his attacks to weak nations—those which, as he says with fine magnanimity of Colombia, are "helplessly unable to enforce" their will as against us. But who shall put a check upon him? If he is to be a law unto himself and set up his notion of the national interest as his sufficient guide, where shall we stop? Nowhere short of becoming a standing threat to the peace of the world. Such wild and lawless conceptions of public policy must be put down, or the man professing them rebuked by the people, unless we wish to see this nation embark upon a career of universal aggression.

The President's message, far from being the end of debate, is only the beginning of it. He has not answered the searching questions put to him by Senator Hoar. He passes over entirely his commission of an act of war against a friendly nation. This and his other violations of law and precedent are the real points at issue. They cannot be hidden by the President's cloud of irrelevancies. The question before Congress and before the country is simply whether this great nation is willing to twist a treaty, to turn its back on admitted precedents, and to violate international law, all in order to win a mean and mercenary advantage.

"INCHOATE RIGHTS."

It fairly makes one's head swim to try to keep up with the Administration's successive inventions of legal doctrine. On the heels of the President's garrulous message, the upshot of which is that the essence of law is *sic volo sic jubeo*, comes the published correspondence of Secretary Hay with Gen. Reyes. In it we have one more astonishing attempt to find warrant for an arbitrary and illegal determination. Franklin said that it was a hard case indeed in which a reason could not be found for what you wanted to do; but Mr. Hay's task is the infinitely harder one of finding a law for what he wants to do. Gen. Reyes had politely but pointedly asked him on what ground this Government forbade Colombia to land troops on the Isthmus to defend her own sovereignty. The Secretary replied by recounting recent events, and referring to the treaty between Panama and the United States. Then he said—and here is where you begin to lose your breath—that, although this treaty had "not yet become law," there were "already inchoate rights and duties created by it." In other words, though the law was nonexistent, it was in force.

This is a charming novelty of Secretary Hay's. A treaty pending carries with it inchoate rights. Very good. The bearing of this doctrine lies in its application. Colombia, for example, might have applied it while *her* canal treaty was pending. She might have demanded half of the $10,000,000 purchase money, on the ground that the treaty, though not yet ratified, had already created inchoate rights, and she would take $5,000,000 for hers, please. Having this doctrine by him all the while, we wonder greatly that Secretary Hay did not bring it into play in connection with some of his own reciprocity treaties. While they were still before the Senate, why did he not write to Chancellor von Bülow or Minister Delcassé that the mere fact of a reciprocity treaty's pendency created an inchoate right on our part to exact lower duties for our goods, though we were not yet ready to grant them to foreign goods? The reason is, of course, that either of those gentlemen would have told him that his new doctrine was preposterous nonsense. Gen. Reyes, however, being the representative of a weak nation, is expected to admit gracefully that our logic is as powerful as our guns.

Inchoate rights under a mere project of law would be made short work of in any court. If our right to go to war to defend Panama can be deduced from an unratified treaty, so can Panama's right

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to receive her $10,000,000. Imagine a Comptroller of the Treasury letting a dollar go out on any such warrant! Yet it would be as valid for him as it is for the President. For neither, of course, is it anything more than waste paper. The whole argument would be ridiculous were it not an alarming indication of a lawless spirit in the men set for the enforcement of the law. Prof. Henry Loomis Nelson, writing from close observation, has declared that President Roosevelt has essentially a lawless mind. That is, he thinks only of what he wants done, and has a thoroughgoing contempt for everything, including the law and the testimony, that stands in his way. The wriggling tergiversations which have marked the attempt to justify the Panama trickery go far to confirm that diagnosis.

Mr. Hay's discovery of inchoate validity in a treaty that has, as yet, no effect whatever in law, may be compared with that other invention, all his own, that the refusal to ratify a treaty is an unfriendly act. That was the burden of one of his threatening dispatches to Colombia. For it he was deftly called to book by the Colombian Minister for Foreign Affairs. Señor Rico stated but an elementary truth, but it is one which covers with confusion Secretary Hay's present contention, as it did the former. Said the Colombian Minister: "Previous to ratification, a treaty is but a project which, according to the law of nations, has no rights or obligations; and for the same reason, to reject or delay its ratification is not cause for the adoption of measures tending to alter the friendly relations between two countries." He added with great force that, if such were not the case, the mere "preparing of the treaty would be the occasion of a serious danger, instead of an element of peace and progress." It is plain that it would be if a ruler were free to make an unratified treaty the ground of usurping the power of Congress to declare war. Happily, if the President of the United States really does that, he will be liable to impeachment.

It is evident that the master-motive of both Mr. Roosevelt and Secretary Hay in all this Panama recklessness has been a thorough contempt of the Colombians because they are not altogether such as we are, and because they are weak. This crops out in the President's message. He speaks of the "anti-social spirit" and "imperfect development" of the Colombians. How could such wretched inferiors expect to have their rights respected by the flower of Christian civilization? The old conception that laws were made for the protection of the weak has no place in Mr. Roosevelt's philosophy. Whom we can afford to despise we may wrong with impunity. Now contempt is as perilous a basis of intercourse between nations as between men. From despising people you soon pass to despising their rights; from contempt of their wishes you pass to contempt of our laws. The President's latest revelation of the way in which that spirit actuates him, has been too much for some of his warmest supporters. Whatever the immediate political and public effect may be, there can be no doubt what the verdict of the judicious will be upon the Panama high-handedness. Apropos of one of Palmerston's international aggressions, Lord Malmesbury wrote in his diary: "A low trick and unworthy of England." When the letters and journals of the present day come to light, how many honorable Americans will be found to have written in secret a like condemnation of John Hay and Theodore Roosevelt!

THE HANNA BOOM.

The Hanna boomers are still abroad in the land. At the annual "love feast" of the Indiana Republicans last week, Senator Beveridge spoke up bravely for Roosevelt, but there was much enthusiasm when Senator Hanna was described as "the most astute leader in the party." In Nebraska Gov. Mickey, who is a strong Roosevelt man, is reported to be alarmed over an attempt to undermine his candidate. In this State, as everybody knows, Wall Street much prefers Hanna to Roosevelt, and is prepared to back its preference substantially. In view of these steady efforts to bring Hanna forward, it is worth while to note his real elements of strength.

He can count upon considerable personal popularity in his own State. Ohio always has a favorite son, and to-day Hanna is the man. He could surely get the electoral vote in 1904—but so could Roosevelt or any other Republican, for the State is for the present as firmly fixed as Maine or Vermont. The party, then, is not under the necessity of nominating Hanna for the sake of saving Ohio.

Hanna's support among eminent financiers is, on the whole, a source of weakness rather than of strength, even in this State. Of course, huge campaign contributions would be a help, especially to a candidate like Hanna, who is not squeamish about spending money where it will do the most good. But corruption funds are not the be-all and the end-all in a political fight. Human passion and prejudice still play their part. It must not be forgotten, besides, that Wall Street has never been beloved outside of Wall Street; and the recent slump in stocks, which has impoverished thousands of small investors all over the country, has not warmed many hearts. The nomination of Hanna would be taken by every day-laborer, farmer, small shopkeeper, and professional man of moderate income as a signal that promoters, subsidy grabbers, bloated monopolies, protected Trusts, and law-breaking corporations had captured the party, body and soul. As a Republican leader in this city, who keeps close to the people, remarked the other day, "With Hanna on the ticket, we might as well not hold an election."

Hanna's greatest power, so far as securing the nomination goes, is with the machine politicians. Probably there are few States in which they would not be glad to see him overthrow Roosevelt. He could have the whole gang of venal Southern delegates at a low price for cash. He could secure many from the North by the judicious distribution of patronage—a business of which he is the acknowledged master. The rank and file of the "workers" would know that under Hanna there would be no nonsense about civil-service rules, no fussing over moral qualifications, no disagreeable inquiries into shady pasts—things that have made so many enemies for Roosevelt. Grave Senators would no longer have to sacrifice their dignity by solemnly protesting that the postmaster of their choice, though he looked the villain, was fit to be received in decent society.

More than this, there would be no damaging investigations of post-office thefts and land scandals, no prosecutions by "mugwumps" like Messrs. Bonaparte and Conrad; no painful explanations by former Cabinet officers; no indictments and sentences to prison for Beavers and other trusted friends of Congressmen. Hanna's stalwart defence of Rathbone and Heath has inspired all the rascals in both parties with confidence in him as a candidate. Every man who is thanking God for the statute of limitations would throw up his cap for Hanna. The only difficulty in the way of a sweeping victory would be the hostility of those citizens who do not flock with jailbirds. Exactly the same causes that would kindle enthusiasm in the "grafters" would alienate millions of plain people who are not looking for "plums," pickings, and rake-offs, and who have done nothing to make them fear the penitentiary.

As a candidate for election, President Roosevelt has obvious weaknesses. He will find those financiers who were troubled by the Northern Securities suit and by his attitude in the coal strike either lukewarm or positively cold. He must reckon upon half-hearted work from those spoilsmen of all grades—from United States Senators to district leaders—whose demands he has failed to recognize. He must also lose votes among the steady, conservative business men throughout the country, who regard him as impulsive and erratic. Yet, when all these deductions are allowed, he still retains far greater strength than Hanna. He is regarded as straightforward, incorruptible, fearless. If he is occasionally too strenuous and over-eager, he is, at any rate, not the tool of special interests. He is cordial, hail-fellow-well-

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met, and is the possessor of certain engaging personal traits that make him enormously popular in the West. It is possible that such a candidate as Cleveland might consolidate all elements of opposition and beat him. Perhaps there are Republicans who might run almost as well as he. But the idea that Hanna could supplant him in convention and then carry the country is preposterous. A diversion for Hanna might conceivably bring in a Democratic President, but any one who is putting up his money on Hanna with the hope of really electing him is betting on the wrong horse.

OUR DEBT TO MR. LOW.

Mayor Low's Administration passes, but its works do follow it. New York city will never cease to show the impress of these two years of government under an honest, an intelligent, a high-minded and non-partisan Mayor. Mr. Low has made mistakes—some of them serious—which we have freely criticised; but above them all rise the solid achievements which an appreciative municipality should place gratefully to his credit now, as impartial history surely will hereafter.

We do not propose to detail here the record of the Administration which the voters put in power two years ago. It is known of all. It was spread before the city during the recent election, and no part of it was successfully challenged by its adversaries. Mayor Low's ability in practical affairs is of a high order, and was never displayed more signally than in the rehabilitation of our municipal finances. The intelligent care with which great public improvements were planned and watched over during his Administration; the attention given to the needs of the most needy, through efficient and considerate management of the Tenement House Department and the Charities Department; the improvement in the police force and the suppression of the grosser forms of public vice—all this is an old story, which needs no repeating here. But the moral of it all cannot be too often repeated. All details of public office are dry, as Disraeli said to the under-secretary, but it is necessary to master them. It was to this work that Mayor Low has given his days and nights. Only in that way can efficient government be had. The machinery will not run of itself. A spirit of energy and fidelity in the whole personnel of the public service has to be imparted from the man in control; and in this respect Mr. Low's example has certainly been all that could be desired. New York never had a more faithful or hard-working Mayor.

But it is the spirit even more than the methods of his Administration upon which it becomes the inhabitants of this city to fix their eyes. It was not a party Administration. The Mayor's chief obligations were not to a machine, but to the municipality. This left him free from the fetters which bind even a good man who becomes a partisan Mayor. He has no end of party claims to consider. He has to provide for troops of party hangers-on. His action in many matters has been mortgaged in advance. It is not possible for him to fasten his mind solely upon the work to be done and ask who is the best man to do it. But Mayor Low was happy in the possession of liberty. He was able to turn to the fit man, ignoring party designations. The result was to give the city a government in which a new principle was put into operation. Never before in this country has non-partisanship as the working basis of municipal administration been given a trial on so large a scale.

This is the chief thing for us to bear in mind. Here is the standard by which to judge Mayor McClellan. Mr. Low won his success in office because he was unhampered; because he could enlist available talent and public spirit without first seeing whether they were duly labelled with the correct party name. In other words, his range of choice was greatly enlarged, while his freedom of action—and the freedom of action of all his subordinates—was rendered more secure. Now it is unnecessary to argue that those are the essential conditions of successful administration. They are such in every other executive position known to man, and they are in the office of Mayor. Hence it is absurd to say that non-partisanship fails with the failure of Mr. Low to be reëlected. The non-partisan principle is simply a dictate of common sense, a mere platitude of business; and as soon as Americans make up their minds to manage their cities on common-sense and business methods, they will necessarily stand for non-partisanship. Mr. Bryan is returning from his European trip deeply impressed with our backwardness in city government, as compared with the level reached abroad. One reason certainly is that foreign cities do not tie themselves hand and foot under a partisan government. They leave their rulers at liberty to secure the best administration possible. But that is non-partisanship.

That principle will not die with Mayor Low's administration. Neither will the substantial improvements which have been wrought under it pass away and leave not a wrack behind. The good is the enemy of the bad. What the people have seen done for two years, they will insist shall be done in part, at least, during the years to come. We shall not fall back completely into the slough. In this way, even spasmodically, we win and keep a measure of reform—gaining only by painful inches. Good in itself, Mayor Low's Administration will be good in its future effects. It has given us an example from which succeeding Mayors will fall away at their peril.

NEGRO DISFRANCHISEMENT IN MARYLAND.

The negro is to be disfranchised in Maryland, although most of the causes which have led to similar action by the States farther south are absent. As compared with theirs, the negro population of Maryland is relatively small, being but 198 to every 1,000 inhabitants, in contrast with Mississippi, 585; South Carolina, 584; Louisiana, 471; Alabama, 452; Florida, 437; Virginia, 356; and North Carolina, 330. In Mississippi and in South Carolina, the first States to close the ballot-box to such of their citizens as had African blood in their veins, the negroes were in a large majority. Universal manhood suffrage, with free and fair elections, would make absolute negro domination at least theoretically possible. In Louisiana, Alabama, and Florida, the white majorities are so slender that a mere handful of Caucasians could, by allying themselves with the negro, have given victory to a party six-sevenths of whose voters were black. Even in Virginia and North Carolina it was quite possible for the highest State officers to be elected by a political party two-thirds of whose members were of African descent. In Maryland no person can be chosen by the vote of the State at large unless he receives more than three white for every two black votes. Nothing, therefore, which by any latitude of language can be called negro domination is possible there.

In all the other Southern commonwealths just named, negroes have held distinguished office. Two of them from Mississippi have had seats in the Senate of the United States. In Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina men of that race held high State and judicial offices, and were sent to the national House of Representatives, as they were from Alabama and North Carolina. In all the States in which they are now disfranchised, negroes have filled county and other local offices of dignity, power, and emolument. Nothing of the kind has ever been known in Maryland. Not only has no negro ever been elected to any office of any kind in the State, other than that of city councilman, but no negro has ever been the candidate of any organized political party for office.

During the twenty-five years prior to 1896 in which the Democratic party controlled all branches of the State Government, no attempt at disfranchisement was ever made. There would seem to be less reason for it now than heretofore, as for ninety years the proportion of negroes to the total population of the State has been steadily diminishing, as appears from every census since 1810, when the ratio was 382 to every 1,000. When President Roosevelt entertained Booker Washington, the Maryland negroes were relatively only about

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of architecture, here a window and there a door of fifteenth-century work; with now and then a handsome palace in that stately, ponderous style which suggests the Spanish influence that so long told upon Sicilian builders. There is, however, no really fine church, for the ruthless hand of the restorer has swept away nearly all that had come down from mediæval times, and the later Renaissance and modern work is dull and often tasteless. Where a long, narrow street opens on the sea, one has often a charming view; there is always a pleasure in these southern towns in the clear air and brilliant sunshine as one emerges upon the sea front and catches the sparkling wavelets. As is usually the case in sites of limited area which have been continuously inhabited for many centuries, the remains of classical antiquity are scanty. Two fragments of temples alone remain from Hellenic Syracuse. One survives in the columns and part of the floor and front of a temple apparently of the fifth century B. C., supposed to have been dedicated to Apollo—a fine piece of work, but much damaged, and so crowded in by houses that its proportions and general effect cannot be duly appreciated. The columns of another have been preserved, embedded in the walls of the Cathedral, a building of no great beauty, for though its earliest form must date from a remote time, it has been modernized in an unattractive late Renaissance style. One might expect that in the open ground outside the Island more considerable ruins would remain. There are, however, but few. Three miles away, across the Great Harbor, two columns only remain of the temple of Olympian Zeus which contained a famous statue clothed in the golden mantle which Dionysius stole. There is also, a mile outside the modern town, the Greek theatre, whose seats, cut in the limestone rock, are still perfect. There is a Roman amphitheatre, somewhat more dilapidated, because its materials have been carried away to be used in building. With the exception of a stray column or two and some fragments of Roman work, and of the walls to be presently noticed, these are practically all that is left of old Syracuse.

In what, then, does the special interest of the place consist? In the site itself—that is to say, in an examination of the ground covered by the ancient city in its greatest extent, and in the identification of the spots which played a conspicuous part in its history. It was not only a vast and populous city, but, during the period of its greatest power, from B. C. 500 to B. C. 200, was more frequently besieged by large armies and fleets than perhaps any other city, so that the methods of attack and defence practised by the ancients can nowhere be better studied in their relation to the natural features which determined their employment. Originally confined to the isle of Ortygia, the city spread northwards beyond the narrow and shallow strait which divided it, on the north, from the mainland. Here the ground rises gradually to a sort of tableland, which breaks down to the east in bold cliffs towards the sea, and on the west slopes gently upwards for about five miles. The eastern or seaward part of this tableland, called by the Greeks Achradina, was first covered with houses; and presently, when it had been enclosed by a wall, it became part of the city, the strait having been now bridged over, as it is to-day. By degrees the city spread further to the west, until the whole plateau was (under Dionysius the elder) encircled by a wall which ran along the top of the line of cliff that bounds the plateau on the north and on the southwest. In this, its greatest extent, Syracuse was eight or ten times the size of the old isle-city, and had room for a million of people, though probably the population never reached that number, and large spaces remained unbuilt on. In the later days of the Roman Empire, as the prosperity of Sicily declined, Syracuse shrank slowly back to its former limits. It is now again confined to the isle of Ortygia, though a few houses are scattered over the lower parts of Achradina, within a mile of the modern town. The rest of the tableland either is cut up into fields, or remains a bare stretch of open ground, browsed by goats, covered with loose stones, but showing hardly any traces of the houses which must have covered large parts of it. The wall, however, can be traced all round, and in some places, especially on the north side, is pretty well preserved, while at the extreme northwest end there are considerable remains of the huge fortress, with its long subterranean galleries cut out of the rock, which Dionysius constructed to guard a point where the cliff did not give sufficient protection.

From the summit of this fortress, which stands high, there is a splendid prospect over the whole plateau, over the country to the north as far as Etna and the mountains of Calabria, over the Harbor and the plain which lies between it and the western hills. All the spots that figure in the great Athenian siege are visible. Immediately beneath is the break in the line of cliff by which the Athenian army ascended in that night attack on the Syracusan position which proved their ruin. This break is due to the fact (a fact that does not seem to have been noticed by the topographers, so far as the present writer knows) that at this point a dyke of igneous rock breaks through the limestone strata which form the cliff. The dyke has itself worn down to the level of the rock on each side, but its intrusion has caused the interruption of the precipitous face, and left a comparatively easy path from the lower ground to the plateau above. To the east one discovers the site of the Athenian circular fort, and the course followed by the walls which the besieger and the besieged respectively built. To the south are the battlefields in the plain on which the hostile armies strove. Full in front is the Great Harbor in which the decisive naval conflict was fought, when the enormous fleets almost filled the wide space of the harbor. To the northwest, some six miles off, is the glen by which the defeated Athenians strove to escape, and where they were met and turned back by the Syracusans. Far away to the south-southwest is the line of road along which, after that repulse, the Athenians made their last effort to break through the toils which had been spread around them, and along which the relics of the shattered host were brought back as prisoners to be shut up in those terrible quarries where most of them perished—last scene in the awful drama which we read in the imperishable pages of Thucydides.

It is Thucydides above all that has given the site of Syracuse its enduring and enthralling interest. He makes us realize, as one so seldom can in spots where great events have happened, the volume and force of human passion that has surged over the ground which now lies lonely, calm, and peaceful under our eyes. The ancient world is so far removed from us, and the data we have for many of the most striking passages in its history are so scanty, that it is seldom that imagination can body forth in vivid clearness the reality of events. Here, though houses and temples are gone, the features of the ground speak to us; and when they are illumined by the brilliant light which the great writer has poured upon them, they move us like a poem or a piece of noble music. The hosts march again over these silent, stone-strewn fields; the pæan rises from the struggling mass of warriors; the triremes, sped forward by the straining rowers, meet and crash upon the gleaming waters of the Great Harbor, beneath which lie the bones of so many valiant men.

POISONERS AND SORCERERS.

PARIS, December 16, 1903.

By a singular coincidence, two works have appeared, nearly at the same time, on the subject of poisonings, which have long been one of the curious chapters of history. I have before me the 'Poisons et Sortilèges' of Drs. Cabanès and L. Nass. with the sub-title, "Les Médicis; les Bourbons; la Science au 20e siècle." This volume succeeds another, chiefly concerned with poisoning in more ancient times—'Les Césars; Envoûteurs et Sorciers; les Borgia.' Dr. A. Masson has written a volume on 'La Sorcellerie et la Science des Poisons au 17e Siècle.' Curiously enough, our popular dramatist, Sardou, is just preparing for the stage a new play called "La Sorcière," in which the famous Sarah Bernhardt will take the principal part. The work of M. Funck-Brentano on the trials of the famous poisoners of the reign of Louis XIV. ought not to be forgotten; it is a very important contribution to history, though the author is sometimes carried away beyond the limits of severe criticism.

For some little time the doctors have seemed anxious to take their place among the writers of history and to solve problems which touch at the same time the fate of nations and their own profession.

"We can," says M. Masson, "form an idea of the way in which history was written under the reign of our kings, by the manner in which the Empress of China relates in her own way to her subjects the official history of the late campaign. Even to this day the Sultan is ignorant of the tragic death of McKinley, and believes that the President of the United States died of a cerebral congestion 'while visiting the Buffalo exhibition.' In Turkey, the death of King Humbert was reported in the official papers: 'The King of Italy died suddenly while bowing to the crowd.' When the late Shah of Persia was assassinated, the Turkish papers simplified the news and published the following information: 'The Shah felt slightly indisposed in the course of the afternoon, and his body was sent to Teheran.'"

In Russia, where so many tragical events have taken place, there was at once established a sort of tacit complicity between all who had profited by them, and it was only by degrees that the whole truth filtered through the official legends.

The science of poisons was an importation from Italy. History has preserved the

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name of some of the famous poisoners who learned it in the land of the Borgias. The most famous of these is René, the perfumer of Catherine de Médicis, who was by some (justly or unjustly) considered his accomplice. René Bianco arrived in France in the Queen's suite, at the time of the marriage of Catherine with Henri II. He opened a shop in the Pont St. Michel, and occupied himself not only with perfumes, but also with poisons. The visits which Catherine sometimes paid to Ruggieri furnished Alexandre Dumas with chapters in some of his amusing novels. Ruggieri was another Italian, who was versed in astrology and occupied himself also with poisons; he became for a time the oracle of the Court, and the grave De Thou says that, after the massacre of Saint Bartholomew, Catherine consulted Ruggieri in order to decide what she was to do with the Princes of Navarre and of Condé, who were in her hands. Ruggieri was merciful, and, having consulted the stars, announced that the state had nothing more to fear from the two princes.

It was often said that the mother of Henri IV., the famous Queen Jeanne d'Albret, was poisoned when she left Navarre to go to Paris to attend the marriage of her son. M. Cabanès does not accept this version. Jeanne d'Albret was very ill already when she left for Paris; she was probably tuberculous. I have a portrait of her at that time, in which she is very emaciated. During one of the fatiguing ceremonies on the occasion of her son's marriage she took cold and died of pleurisy. An autopsy was made after her death, but nothing was found to justify the rumor, which became current, that she had been poisoned by means of toxic perfumes. Henri IV. was always silent on the subject, and never brought a direct accusation against the enemies of his mother.

The chapters written by M. Cabanès on the use of poison in the sixteenth century are very interesting, and he is able to correct many historical errors. He gives many details regarding the poisons employed at the time. The famous surgeon Ambroise Paré writes with much caution on the subject: "If I had my will, no man would ever have written on the subject of poison, so that we should have to defend ourselves only against beasts, which is easier than to defend ourselves against the wickedness of traitors and poisoners." He says also: "The way to defend ourselves against poison is very difficult, for the wicked poisoners and perfumers, who secretly sell poisons, conduct their villany so adroitly that they deceive the most expert."

We possess many documents on the history of criminality in the seventeenth century. Trials were frequent in which sorcery was really a cover for poisoning, and not a few of the sorcerers tried were in reality mere poisoners. In 1679 the King created the "chambre ardente," which had at once to judge 337 people suspected of being poisoners, and many were condemned to suffer capital punishment. From that date we hear no more of sorcerers, and trials for sorcery became exceedingly rare. On the other hand, trials for poisoning became more common. The regicides, instead of employing the poniard, tried poison. From the reign of Louis XIII. there are, in the Musée de Condé at Chantilly, 354 autograph letters which throw great light on this subject, as well as the 244 letters already known and published in the Historical Studies of Marius Topin.

M. Masson's chapters on Richelieu and Louis XIII. are particularly interesting. The medical account of Richelieu up to the time of his death is contained in a series of dispatches from Louis XIII., always uneasy about the health of his minister. These letters, written from many places, show the King's anxiety. He writes from Blois, on the 6th of June, 1626:

"My Cousin: I perceive all the reasons which make you desire rest, a rest which I desire, with your health, even more than you, provided you can find it in the care and principal conduct of my affairs. . . . I am well aware, sir, that you despise all for my service, and that many of the *grands* wish you ill on this occasion, but be assured that I will protect you against whoever it may be. Louis."

In November, 1632, it was thought that Richelieu was in great danger. The King received news of him almost hourly, and wrote him short notes like this from Beaugency, on the 17th of November (8 P. M.): "My Cousin: I am exceedingly pained by your illness." These laconic notes were received by Richelieu at Bordeaux, where he was suddenly seized by a crisis in his malady. M. Masson tries to prove that Louis XIII. was constantly preoccupied by the idea that poison might be administered to Richelieu, and that the King had the same fears for himself. These fears were unfounded so far as the great minister was concerned, for he died from natural causes in September, 1642. His health had always been precarious, and he died of pleuropneumonia. He was all his life subject to an infirmity which caused frequent loss of blood, and all his portraits show him with a very pale, emaciated face. He was not allowed to ride horseback, and he often made journeys in a barge on the Loire.

Marie de Médicis, the mother of Louis XIII., is the subject of another medical study by M. Masson. Without entering into details, I give only his final verdict: "It is very difficult, after the review we have made of all the symptoms, to retain any doubt as to the mode of death of Marie de Médicis, and to believe that she succumbed to a malady having its natural evolution." The King and his mother were estranged from each other:

"In virtue of the axiom, 'Is fecit cui prodest,' people suspected all those who feared a return to favor of the Queen mother and were not without apprehensions that, if she made peace with her son, she would desire to take vengeance on those of whom she thought she had a right to complain. Richelieu was naturally accused of this crime, but the high favor which he enjoyed, a favor proved by the correspondence between the King and his minister, does not allow us to charge his memory with such a calumny."

"Marie de Médicis, a cardiac subject, did not die of heart complaint; . . . she died a violent death, like three-quarters of the members of her family."

M. Masson's study ends with the reign of Louis XIII. Drs. Cabinès and L. Nass enter the reign of Louis XIV. They speak at length of the attempts made at different times to poison Mazarin, the superintendent Fouquet, Colbert, Louvois, De Lionne; of the mysterious death of Madame, whose funeral oration was delivered by Bossuet *(Madame se meurt! Madame est morte!)*; of the death of Marie-Louise of Spain; of the criminal projects of Madame de Montespan; of the famous poisoners, Voisin and Brinvilliers. The deaths of the Grand Dauphin, the son of Louis XIV., and of his sons, are events which have entered into all memories and have been recorded in immortal pages by Saint-Simon. When Louis XIV. died, he left for his successor a child, of delicate health, who alone stood between the crown of France and the Regent, Philippe of Orleans. Rumors of poisoning were so current in the 17th century that the Regent was suspected of aiming at the crown by all means; these rumors were unfounded, but the governor of young Louis XV., M. de Villeroi, guarded the young King with so much jealousy that he led people to suspect that the child was in constant danger. Lagrange-Chancel made himself the mouthpiece of the enemies of the Regent of Orleans when he wrote the now well-forgotten poem of the 'Philippiques.' When Louis XVIII. was on the throne he once said to the Duke d'Orléans (the future Louis Philippe), who called on him at the Tuileries: "Avez-vous lu les Philippiques?" Louis Philippe was very much moved by the question (Louis XVIII. having a particularly harsh manner), but said nothing in answer. The King remained silent for some time, and then said: "Well, cousin, you may read the 'Philippiques.' Louis XV. lived long; the Regent was *un honnête homme*."

Correspondence.

PROFESSORS' SALARIES AT AMHERST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your statement, in a recent article on "Some College Salaries," that professors at Amherst receive less than $3,000, is incorrect. Since 1901 the regular salary of professors has been $3,000. A large addition to funds was then made for increasing the salaries of professors and associate professors. It has also been provided that those who have reached the age of seventy and have served the college twenty-five years, may retire on a pension amounting to half-salary. George Harris.

Amherst, January 2, 1904.

AN AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION ESTABLISHED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As the result of a movement begun more than a year ago there was established at New Orleans, December 30, a society entitled The American Political Science Association, whose sphere of interest is the entire field of political science. Within this field its work will be similar to that now being done by the American Historical and the American Economic Associations for history and economics respectively, and its policy will be to maintain as close relations as possible with these two older bodies. Its membership will undoubtedly include many persons who are already members of the Historical and the Economic Associations, and it will hold its annual meetings at the same times and places.

The need for the establishment of this new society, which is to have for its object, as its constitution declares, "the encouragement of a scientific study of politics, pub-

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lic law, administration, and diplomacy," is quite evident. By some few the opinion was advanced that this need might be met by the creation of a political-science section in the American Economic or in the American Historical, or in both; the sections thus created to form a joint section, to which should be assigned a certain part of the programmes of the annual meetings of those associations. A canvass of the views of those most interested disclosed, however, an overwhelming opinion that the need could not thus be satisfied. By them it was argued that, in the first place, such a political-science "section" would not attract the active support that a new national association would be likely to enlist; and, in the second place, that it would in but very small measure satisfy the needs of the political scientists. It was declared that what they desired was not merely an opportunity to read papers and to have them published in the reports of the annual proceedings of an existing society, but the establishment of some representative body that could take the scientific lead in all matters of a political interest, encouraging research, aiding if possible in the collection and publication of valuable material, and, in general, advancing the scientific study of politics in the United States.

It being thus demonstrated that a new association was needed, the only question that remained to be answered was as to whether there could be obtained a support sufficient to warrant its establishment. Inquiries pursued during the past year showed that such a support could be obtained, and therefore, as above said, the Association was created, a constitution adopted, and officers elected for the ensuing year. These officers are: President—F. J. Goodnow, professor of administrative law, Columbia University; First Vice-President—Woodrow Wilson, President of Princeton University; Second Vice-President—Paul S. Reinsch, professor of political science, University of Wisconsin; Third Vice-President—Simeon E. Baldwin of New Haven, Conn.; Secretary and Treasurer—W. W. Willoughby, professor of political science, Johns Hopkins University. Associated with these in the government of the Association were elected the following members of the Executive Council: Andrew D. White, former Ambassador to Germany; Hannis Taylor, former Ambassador to Spain; Jesse Macy, professor of political science, Iowa College; H. P. Judson, professor of political science, University of Chicago; L. S. Rowe, professor of political science, University of Pennsylvania; Albert Shaw, editor of the *Review of Reviews;* Bernard Moses, professor of political science, University of California; J. A. Fairlie, professor of administrative law, University of Michigan; W. A. Schaper, professor of political science, University of Minnesota; Herbert Putnam, Librarian of Congress.

Within this Association, sections are to be established dealing respectively with the following topics: (1) Comparative Legislation, including the practical operation of statutes, uniform legislation, and the promotion of publication, especially of indices and digests of record material; (2) International Law, including diplomacy; (3) Constitutional Law, including lawmaking and political parties; (4) Administrative Law, including colonial, national, State, and local administration; (5) Historical Jurisprudence; (6) Political Theory.

The enumeration of the above topics serves not only more particularly to indicate the prospective field of the Association, but to emphasize the fact that its work will appeal very strongly both to those engaged in academic instruction and to public administrators, to lawyers of broader culture, and, in general, to all those interested in the scientific study of the great and increasingly important questions of practical and theoretical politics in this country. Through affiliation with the American Historical and the American Economic Associations, it is believed that a trinity of societies will be created that will be able to assume and maintain an undisputed leadership in these allied fields of thought.

The constitution of this new association declares that it "will not assume, as such, a partisan position upon any question of practical politics, nor commit its members to any position thereupon." Any person is eligible to membership upon the annual payment of three dollars, or to life membership, exempt from annual dues, upon the payment of fifty dollars.

In conclusion, it may be said that the establishment of this association is a definite recognition of the fact that the study of politics and public law is a discipline distinct from that of history and of economics. It is scarcely too much to expect that just as the establishment of the American Historical and of the American Economic Associations marked the beginning of a new epoch in the scientific study of history and economics respectively in this country, so the creation of this new Political Science Association will mark the beginning of a new period in the scientific study and teaching of matters political in the United States.

X.

January 3, 1904.

LIONS FOR TWO PRESIDENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Consul-General Skinner, now on his return from the Abyssinian capital, "has been charged to deliver to the President two lions" as a present from King Menelik; and, as they could not well be shipped by express from Abyssinia, presumably the consul-general has them in his personal custody. It is to be hoped he enjoys the mission thus imposed upon him better than a certain earlier consular officer did a like trust.

In 1839, while Thomas N. Carr was consul at Tangier, a rumor came to him from Fez that the Emperor of Morocco intended making him the recipient of some barbaric present or other expressive of his regard for the Government of the United States. Consul Carr took immediate alarm, and sought the bashaw, who was the chief official at Tangier, to remonstrate. From the bashaw he got no satisfaction, and set about communicating with the Emperor; but, before he could do so, there came to his door a glittering official, attended by a file of soldiers, and bringing a full-grown lion and lioness—the finest ones, said Mr. Carr, that he had ever seen. The Moroccan official said he had come to give the consul the lions as a present. The consul said he could not take presents; the laws did not permit it. "But you are expected to forward these to your President," said the official. The consul said that the laws of Congress did not permit the President, either, to accept presents from a foreign Power. "Then you may send them to your Congress," replied the official. "But," remonstrated the distressed consul, "Congress will not accept presents; it has resolved to that effect." "Well," next inquired the Moroccan, "who is back of your Congress—who is the highest authority in your country?" "The people," responded the American. "Then send the lions to the American people," was the conclusive and triumphant answer of the official. Then the consul refused point blank to receive the lions for anybody or on any terms. "But," answered the Moroccan, "that is impossible. I have been sent to give you these lions, and give them to you I must and shall; it is the Emperor's orders, and in Morocco to disobey an order means to lose one's head; if you don't take the lions, I shall turn them loose in your street and put a guard across the head of it to keep them there."

Mr. Carr wrote to the State Department that the street in which he lived was a short *cul-de-sac*, in which were only half a dozen houses besides his own; that to turn lions loose in it would have made it uninhabitable, and, at the end of all his resources of resistance, he could see nothing to do but clear a room in his house and turn the lions into it. This he did, and his letter relating to the State Department the story of his adventure and his helplessness against the overpowering generosity of his Moroccan admirers is a most pathetic and moving paper. It is printed in full in House document No. 221, Twenty-sixth Congress, first session.

Communication sixty-four years ago was tedious to an extent which it is hard for those of our day to realize, and his letter, dated September 3, 1839, did not reach the State Department till November 5 of the same year. On November 12 a reply was forwarded, in which Mr. Carr was told that as it appeared he had done all that lay in his power to repel the invasion of the lions, he might send them to the United States by the first available ship, and the charges for transportation and for the subsistence of the animals while they remained members of his family would be allowed in the settlement of his accounts. At this point Document No. 221 drops the story. If the chapter—probably of equal or greater interest—relating the shipment of the lions, their arrival in this country, and their reception by the President, is in the public documents, I have not yet run across it. Giving the State Department's letter two months to reach Tangier, and making reasonable allowance for delay in securing a ship (only accidental sailing ships being available), the unfortunate consul must have had the lions in his household for the better part of six months.

The story of the progress of Consul-General Skinner's menagerie will, of course, be told more minutely, and if King Menelik's lions reach President Roosevelt he will have an easy outlet from the dilemma by way of the National Zoölogical Park in Washington, which, of course, did not exist in President Van Buren's time.

F. A. Crandall.

Washington, January 4, 1904.

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Notes.

In March next, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. purpose bringing out the 'Memoirs of Henry Villard, Journalist and Financier, 1835-1900,' a two-volume autobiography, in which the journalistic portion outbulks considerably the financial. Many of the leading engagements of our civil war are described from personal observation and from special research in the Official War Records. There will be maps and portrait illustrations.

The Royal Society of Prussia has decided to publish a complete and monumental edition of the works of Wieland, under the editorial direction of Prof. Erich Schmidt of the Berlin University. This project is all the more a desideratum as none of the editions issued by the poet himself includes anything like all his writings; and the same is true of the later edition of Gruber in 1818-1828, and even of Duntzer's forty-volume edition in the seventies. The new edition will embrace everything known to have emanated from Wieland's pen.

Keats has been added to the 32mo "Oxford Miniature Poets" of the Oxford University Press (New York: H. Frowde). The Oxford India paper always taxes credulity by its compactness, and here we have 574 pages that might be doubled without straining the pocket. Opaqueness accompanies this thinness of paper, and the page is perfectly legible. Severn's portrait of Keats serves as frontispiece. There is an index and a table, but no other apparatus.

For the sake of illustrations by Howard Chandler Christy, the Bobbs-Merrill Co. of Indianapolis have arranged with Houghton, Mifflin & Co. for a new edition of Longfellow's 'Courtship of Miles Standish,' now nearing its half-century mark. Mr. Christy's designs are partly in color, partly in black and white. In neither series can we praise the skilled draughtsman, nor discover imagination out of the common. The get-up is attractive.

For obvious reasons of timeliness Messrs. Putnam have brought out a third edition of the late Mr. Whistler's 'Gentle Art of Making Enemies.' The book is elegantly printed, with broad margins, and yellow-backed, and with scarcely any eccentricity beyond the contents of the artist's several letters and the amusing index to captions.

After two years' suspension, 'The American Art Annual' (No. 226 West Fifty-eighth Street) reappears, including in its scope all the art events of the interspace. We need not dwell upon the usefulness of this handbook as a directory of artists, art societies, clubs, and schools, and as a record of exhibitions and important sales. Its scope is extended in the fourth issue by the inclusion of prices paid at auction for prints. Thus an enduring chronicle is left of the West, Marquand, and similar sales. The catholicity of the editor, Miss Florence N. Levy, is shown in a list of writers on art, mostly of the decried race of critics; but this list is manifestly incomplete. The misprints that disfigured the earlier issues have measurably disappeared. All in all, this meritorious work has been much improved, and is more than ever necessary to those who deal with the externals of our art.

It was in the sixties that Mr. Justin McCarthy settled in London for a journalistic and literary career, and his collection of 'Portraits of the Sixties' (Harper & Brothers) therefore represents his memories of the Englishmen most prominent at a time when his own powers of observation were at their freshest. The range includes actors, artists, society queens, and novelists, but most space is given to politicians. Mr. McCarthy does special service to the students of English politics by reviving the memory of parliamentarians who never quite attained to the first rank, but who prepared the ground for reforms commonly associated with more brilliant names, or whose work in other respects was educational and critical rather than popular. The appreciations herein given of Stansfeld, Baines, Thorold Rogers, and Roebuck, to say nothing of such parliamentary curiosities as Whalley and J. A. Blake, well deserve permanence. An interesting chapter on Mr. Goldwin Smith is an exception to the author's rule of excluding living subjects. The chief defect of the book is its insufficient illustration of the characteristics attributed to the various persons here described. Mr. McCarthy tells us, for instance, that in his early days in the House of Commons gallery he heard from his colleagues many an interesting and delightful anecdote of Dickens's skill as a reporter. Would it violate any confidence to let us hear them now? But perhaps Mr. McCarthy did not keep a diary, and his memory retains only the general impression. Mr. Knatchbull-Hugessen's title was Brabourne, not Braybourne (page 133), and the portrait of the late sergeant-at-arms should not have been inscribed "Capt. Gosset, M. P."

The number of subjects covered by the title 'The Tenement House Problem' is so great as to make it impracticable even to enumerate them. Many writers have contributed papers, and the editors, R. W. De Forest and Lawrence Veiller, also furnish monographs. Information is given concerning the housing conditions and tenement laws of many European and American cities, but New York receives by far the most elaborate study. Population has here been allowed to become dense beyond all parallel, and the attempts made to counteract the centripetal force have been altogether inadequate. The history of these attempts is set forth at length, and the prevailing conditions are described and illustrated by photographs, some of which should not have been inserted in a book of this character. The present law regulating the construction of tenement houses in New York is a long step in the right direction; but what is needed is to prohibit the dwelling of more than a certain number of people on an acre of ground. The book is published in two handsome volumes by the Macmillan Co.

'A List of Books (with references to periodicals) on the Philippine Islands in the Library of Congress' has just issued from that institution. Mr. A. P. C. Griffin has compiled it, and Mr. P. Lee Phillips has added a chronological list of maps in the same repository, together with a geographical index to these. They date back to 1519-22, and 134 are entered before the nineteenth century is reached. At No. 378 we start in with 1898, and the last entry under 1903 is numbered 860.

M. Samuel Cornut, the French writer, whose novel 'L'Inquiet' was reviewed in these columns, may have faults of his own, but nobody would deny him the quality of sincerity. There is in his last book, 'Le Testament de ma Jeunesse' (Paris: Fischbacher), a ring that cannot help appealing to the reader, however little he may care for the purely metaphysical part of this autobiography, which is, in truth, the biography of a soul—a noble, generous, but very complicated and restless soul. For the first fifty pages alone, which contain a true and refreshing picture of a village in French Switzerland, 'Le Testament' would be worth reading, and it can be read by every one with pleasure and profit. There is also a chapter on Davel, the patriot of the Canton of Vaud, which is a beautiful (albeit a bit rhetorical) tribute to a local hero too little known, and which the lovers of the "pays Vaudois" must be sure to read.

Commander Peary's graphic account of his four years' Arctic exploration, 1898-1902, is the paper of greatest interest in the December *Geographical Journal*. It closes with a brief outline of his future plans, and with the favorable comments which they elicited from members of the Royal Geographical Society. Dr. J. W. Evans describes a journey into northern Bolivia, a region of extraordinary beauty, and, on account of its rich gold-fields, "coveted by the Incas of Peru." He was accompanied by Mr. R. S. Williams of the New York Botanical Gardens, whose collection of plants "is, I believe, unrivalled by any other from the eastern slopes of the Andes. The species collected exceed 2,000 in number, of which 800 are cryptogams, and at least 160 new to science." Of great present interest is an orographic description, with a map, of the Republic of Panama by Col. G. E. Church. Though only about the size of Indiana, the country has some 500 short rivers, of which the Chagres is the "historic waterway." Referring to its unexampled floods, causing a rise of forty feet in twelve hours, Col. Church says, "it will be extremely interesting for the engineering and financial world to watch the coming contest between the Chagres River and the U. S. Treasury." The population, 340,000 in 1898, represents "such a heterogeneous amalgamation of Spanish, negro, and Indian blood, stirred together by the buccaneers of colonial times, that *white* may, in Panama, be strictly classified as a color. Until I saw a Panama 'army' of 150 men at drill, I had no idea that the human form could take such shapes and colors."

Academic honors for women are increasing on the Continent. Only recently, at its centennial celebration, the Heidelberg University ventured upon the innovation of giving the degree of doctor of theology to that sex, the recipients being the well-known Syriac specialists, Mrs. Gibson and her twin sister. Still more recently the Academy of Sciences of Paris bestowed the prize Da Gamo Machado on the Countess Dr. Marie von Linden, assistant in the Zoölogical Institute of the University of Bonn, for special researches on the pigments of the butterfly. The first fund ever willed to the higher education of women in Germany has just been given to Heidelberg in the shape of 200,000 marks as *stipendia* for women

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students. It is a bequest from Miss Eleanor Wallot.

In the secondary schools of France, the *lycées*, as also in the universities, the study of the German language and literature is making phenomenal strides. At the recent *examen d'agrégation* in Paris there were ninety-nine candidates for seven positions for which the German was a required branch. The written tests covered many difficult themes, such as Nietzsche's relation to Schopenhauer, and the Epic of the Middle Ages, along with translations of selections from Zola and other writers into German. A prominent critical journal of Munich declares that German instructors in similar grades might well hesitate to exact such work of their pupils.

A number of new discoveries have added to our knowledge of classical literature. In the British Museum, remnants of the "Medea" of Neophron have been brought to light. This work has a special significance for Greek literature because it was composed in a prize competition with the "Medea" of Euripides. This fact, originally surmised by Wilamowitz-Moellendorff of Berlin, is fully confirmed by the London fragment, which is soon to be published. Remnants of a hitherto unknown drama of Sophocles, entitled "Achaion Syllogos," have lately been found in a papyrus collection deposited in the Berlin Museum. Publication in the near future is promised. Considerable portions of the 'Protreptikos' of Aristotle, which had hitherto been entirely lost, have been found among the recent papyri discoveries made in Oxyrhynchus by Grenfell and Hunt, and deposited in Oxford. The text is to be published early this year. A whole collection of Egyptian peasants' letters, written in Greek and dating from the third Christian century, have been deposited in the National Library at Florence, and will soon be published. They are full of new data regarding the agricultural affairs of the Egypt of the period, and constitute a welcome continuation of the letters of the Roman plantation owner, Lucius Bellenus Gemellus, dating from about 100 A. D., published some time ago in England. In the recently issued third volume of the Oxyrhynchus papyri of Grenfell and Hunt occur, among other things, fragments of a Latin translation of a work by Irenæus, Bishop of Lyons, who suffered martyrdom about 200 A. D. Professor Nestle of Maulbronn, in the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung*, No. 249, draws attention to the noteworthy feature of the facsimile of this fragment, namely, that line 7, reproducing the words of Matthew xvi. and xvii., is distinctly marked off by quotation marks, and declares that this is by far the first and oldest evidence in existence of the use of such marks in the literature of the world. Nestle's article contains a mass of interesting palæographical details.

As has already been announced, three of the five Nobel prizes have been awarded this year to Scandinavians, each of the three countries being represented. According to the first newspaper report, the literary prize, which is awarded by the Swedish Academy, was to be divided between the two most eminent Norwegian writers, Ibsen and Björnson, and now an explanation is given of the exclusion of the former. It seems that one of the terms by which the literary prize was established was that it should be bestowed only on idealists. This shut out the great dramatist, whose chief pride it is that he has freed himself from what he regards as the weakness of idealism, and whose later view of life is habitually gloomy and pessimistic. It appears further that Björnson, who has an abiding faith in the steady advancement of civilization and the inherent striving after better things in human nature, was one of Nobel's favorite authors. It is rumored that Björnson intends to devote a large portion of his prize, which amounts to over $40,000, to the Teachers' Pension Fund of Norway. It is possible, however, that the rumor is suggested by the fact that the poet presented his birthday jubilee gift of over $5,000 to this object. It seems to be certain that Dr. Finsen has divided a large portion of his prize between the Finsen Institute and the Sanatorium for Heart Disease in Copenhagen.

—Othon Guerlac contributes a lively account of the French Chamber of Deputies to the January *Century*, with pictures by André Castaigne. The Thackeray-Baxter letters continue, and continue to be well worth one's attention. In one letter of the present instalment we have Thackeray's first impression of the 'Nile Notes.' "Do you know it's uncommonly clever? Or is it because of that criticism in *Putnam* that my grateful eyes are opened to Curtis's merits? The book is capital, . . . too luscious to read much of it at a time: but I send the author my regards, and am glad to like what he has done so." Sylvester Baxter gives an extended description of Mrs. Isabella Stewart Gardner's palace of art on the Boston Fenway, amply illustrated from photographs by Thomas E. Marr. Those to whom stolen sweets are always sweeter will read with intense interest the narrative of Ekai Kawaguchi, a Japanese Buddhist, who succeeded in maintaining a residence in Lhasa for two years, most of the time in the house of a Tibetan official, and escaped unharmed when he found that detection was imminent; but, after all, about the most important disclosure from the forbidden land is the fact that the young Dalai Lama is engaged in a struggle to free the civil service of his country from the clutches of the spoilsmen. With the presence of official corruption indicated, it might have been assumed that the sanitation of the sacred city is terribly bad. Senator Lodge and Commissioner-General Sargent discuss the immigration problem, arguing for a closer restriction. Senator Lodge advocates vigorously the application of the educational test. The weak point in the arguments of both is the failure to show that the foreign-born element has been peculiarly at fault in the evils from which the country has suffered since the supposed deterioration in the quality of European incomers began.

—The supply of first-hand material for the literary and social history of nineteenth-century New England is apparently as inexhaustible as the widow's cruse of oil. The *Atlantic* opens the new year with the first of a series of reminiscent papers by Thomas Wentworth Higginson, and promises during the year a series of extracts from the unpublished private journals of Emerson. Col. Higginson deals in the present issue with the Sunny Side of the Transcendental Period. Without attempting an answer, he raises the question why the literature of England during this period displayed so mournful and clouded an aspect, in contrast with the bright, hopeful tone of American letters. Considering his aggressive Americanism, as shown in the Longfellow biography, for instance, one wonders that he finds any difficulty in the problem at all. The failure of American conditions to-day to inspire a literature of the same lofty and serious moral tone as was produced in the time of Transcendentalism is a more important problem. Prof. Walter D. Scott of Northwestern University writes convincingly of the relation of the principles of psychology to effective advertising. Advertising is evidently in a fair way to take its place aong the ever-multiplying "sciences," and it will probably not be long until some purveyor of soap, bitters, or breakfast food, grown rich through its successful application, will come forward to endow chairs and schools of advertising in our colleges. The most intensely interesting article of the issue is Mr. Edwin Burritt Smith's account of the struggle in the Illinois Legislature against the Street-Railway ring. Unless the public administration can be kept free from the corrupt grasp of the public-service corporations, his conclusion is that public ownership is both inevitable and desirable.

—From Professor Lounsbury's second paper on the alleged corruption of the English tongue, in the January *Harper's*, even the much-abused "purist" can find a justification for his existence. The lesson to be derived from a knowledge of the way in which a language grows, he admits, does not release any man from the obligation to make his own usage conform to the best usage, so far as he can ascertain this, or to do all in his power to prevent the introduction of words, meanings, and locutions deemed objectionable on the score of inadequacy or impropriety. Of course this is just what the purist supposes that he is trying to do, and so the whole question simmers down to the qualifications of any particular censor. Professor Lounsbury has shown that specific forebodings of deterioration have not been fulfilled; that countless specific words, meanings, and expressions to which earnest objection has been made, have none the less found their way to unquestioned usage, and that deterioration in language is in reality only a reflex of some form of deterioration in the people who use the language. But, in showing all this, he has hardly shown that the widely spread tendency to resist innovation, even with all the mistakes which he so easily ridicules, has not been a positive factor for good in the development of English speech. We are not quite sure that a general willingness to be among the first by whom the new is tried would not produce a surfeit fully as dangerous as the anæmia to be feared from a general determination to be the last to lay the old aside. Professor Lounsbury's view of the newspaper as a factor in linguistic growth is highly optimistic. The newspaper writers, he holds, are a picked body of men, passionately championing causes in which they have a partisan faith, and, therefore, enjoying conditions most favorable to clearness, directness, and vigor of expression. Happy is Professor Lounsbury if he reads only newspapers written in the style and under the conditions described.

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—Nature and art furnish the leading features in the January *Scribner's*. F. S. Dellenbaugh's description of a New Valley of Wonders recalls the narrative of Major Powell's Grand Cañon explorations, contributed to *Scribner's Monthly*, the predecessor of the *Century*, nearly thirty years ago. Mr. Dellenbaugh was a companion of Major Powell, and has but recently gone back to examine the "Little Zion" valley of southern Utah, a promised land which he was permitted only to view from afar in his earlier days. His description is, of course, copiously illustrated from his own photographs, and seriously tempts the reader to become an explorer and experience for himself the emotions to be aroused by setting one's foot upon ground which the foot of a white man has never touched before. M. H. Spielmann contributes a highly appreciative paper on Frank Brangwyn, in whom he finds a power, robustness, and versatility equalled only by the great masters in painting, whether of the present or the past. The article is accompanied by sixteen illustrations from Mr. Brangwyn's work. The Field of Art is given up to short memories of the recently deceased portrait painter, Alfred Quinton Collins. E. H. Blashfield, Frank Fowler, Kenneth Frazier, Will H. Low, and Robert Reid are the contributors, each showing a high regard for Mr. Collins as a man no less than for his work as an artist.

—The *American Journal of Psychology* has just appeared in a double number, edited by Messrs. Sanford and Titchener as a *Festschrift* in honor of its founder, the President of Clark University (Worcester, Mass.. L. N. Wilson). The *Festschrift*, a sizable volume of 430 pages, is dedicated "by colleagues and former pupils" to "Granville Stanley Hall, Founder of the first American laboratory for experimental psychology and of the first American journal for the publication of the results of psychological investigation; Pioneer in the systematic study of the mental development of children, and in the application of its results to educational practice; Ardent Inspirer in others of the zeal for new knowledge—in commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his attainment of the doctorate in philosophy." It has as frontispiece a good heliotype portrait of President Hall, and closes with a full bibliography of his published writings. No effort has been made to restrict the contents to the psychology of childhood and adolescence, the subjects with which in recent years President Hall's name has been more especially connected: the twenty-five articles cover the whole field of psychological interest, from college football to the subconscious, and from musical æsthetics to retroactive amnesia. Europe is represented by Professor Waller, who sends from the physiological laboratory of the University of London a study of judgments of time made under his direction by Miss Edgell; by M. Beaunis, who writes on dreams; and by Professor Kuelpe, who discourses on experimental æsthetics. Professor Motora sends from Tokio an elaborate paper on the conductivity of the nervous system. Among the American contributors we note, besides the two editors, the names of Professor Cattell, who, with the usual heartlessness of the statistician, analyzes the gifts and attainments of his psychological colleagues; of Professor Jastrow, who writes the article on the status of the subconscious referred to above; and of Dr. Adolf Meyer, director of the Pathological Institute of Ward's Island, who furnishes a masterly description of the neurotic constitution. All the papers, so far as we are able to judge, possess real merit; and in saying this we pay a compliment to the editors no less than to the contributors. President Hall is to be congratulated upon the receipt of a signal and well-deserved honor.

—Students of Rabelais now have their quarterly, *Revue des Etudes Rabelaisiennes* (Paris: Honoré Champion), of which the first number (xx+92 pp.), not dated, was probably published in July, as the miscellanies report the sessions for June of the Société des Études Rabelaisiennes, which is responsible for the magazine. Besides the constitution and list of members (about 250 at that time), there are articles which give the magazine a good reason for itself. Certain points in the history of Rabelais need discussion; his language, too, and many of his allusions may still be investigated with profit; and a considerable life is assured the quarterly by these needs, as also by the inclusion of his period as a subject of study. In this number M. Charles Whibley writes of "Rabelais in England," and considers especially Thomas Nash, the pamphleteer of the latter part of the sixteenth century, as much indebted to him. Prof. Pietro Toldo of Turin contributes "The Smoke of the Roast, and Divination by Signs." In the old popular tale of the first part of the title the poor wanderer is allowed to warm his rice in the smoke of a leg of mutton turning on a spit over the brazier. The owner of the mutton, seeing that a benefit has been conferred, demands pay for his grace; but the judge to whom appeal is made orders that a coin shall be rung down before the creditor, so that he may be rewarded with the sound of the money. Tamul and Khmer analogues are quoted for what is perhaps the origin of the story. M. Abel Lefranc, President of the Society, who seems also to be the leading spirit in the new enterprise, presents "Rabelaisian Problems: A Pretended Fifth Book by Rabelais." This is the book dated 1549, and made known by Ludwig Rosenthal of Munich, in 1900. It has defenders; but M. Lefranc, in this first part of his article, writes against the Rabelaisian authorship, and his quotations show an author who opposes abuses and is serious, but seems to lack Rabelais's wit and vigor. Among the notes are remarks on the dates of Rabelais, also by Lefranc. The date of his birth is uncertain, and the year of his death not precise; but an epitaph by the poet Tahureau, from a volume of his poems published in 1554, implies that he was dead at that time, while some MS. documents in the Bibliothèque Nationale speak of him as living in December, 1552, so that the assumed 1553 for his death is not far from the truth. It is interesting to note that there was an old Société des Amis et Admirateurs de Rabelais that existed from 1886 to 1892, and had annual sessions at Tours. It then failed on account of the death of its chief founders. It left behind few memorials—only the accounts of the annual sessions and two small pamphlets by M. François Audiger, founder of the society.

—It is now nearly thirty years since Gregorovius published his 'Lucrezia Borgia,' but Mr. J. L. Garner's translation of this celebrated biography (Appleton) is not open to criticism on the ground that the original has become obsolete. The merits of the book are so great that they well deserve to be recognized after the lapse of a generation. Less elaborate than Gregorovius's works on Rome and Athens, it bears the stamp of the same profound scholarship and the same sureness of judgment. Lucrezia Borgia would probably have attracted little attention but for the fame of her father and brother. She certainly did nothing that should have brought upon her the unpleasant notoriety which is attached to her name. Gregorovius styles her "the most unfortunate woman in modern history"; by which he means that the offences charged against her are more shocking than those launched against any other innocent. The innuendoes of Guicciardini, made current by Victor Hugo and a host of minor writers, are such as to blacken any character and create a zero point of moral turpidity, if only they are true. Roscoe, however, believed in Lucrezia's innocence; and Gregorovius, following up the inquiry with a much fuller grasp of the documents, acquitted her of the fatal, the damning accusations. There is no reason why we should discuss this matter at any length, but it may be as well to point out that Alexander VI. stands convicted of chronic irregularities by unquestionable evidence. Pastor, for example, is led regretfully to admit the laxness of his habits. On the other hand, the stories most unfavorable to Lucrezia sprang from political hostility or from the prurient gossip of the Renaissance. At the best she is not edifying, though doubtless she possessed some of the family strength. She grew up in a society where epicureanism flourished and the Decalogue was neglected. Like the rest of the Romans, she had her failings and deserves reproach, but that is a very different thing from saying that she was "a moral monster." The translation, while of average quality, is somewhat loose in its rendering of names and in its transcription of dates.

—M. G. Weulersse, travelling fellow, or *boursier*, of the University of Paris, who has already written a work on China, new and old, reviewed in our columns, follows it with another on Japan, of about the same size and general method of treatment. The text of 'Le Japon d'aujourd'hui' (Paris: Armand Colin) is devoted to social studies especially; but, along with much solid information, obtained after careful examination, there is a good deal of piquancy. It is when we come to the last chapter, on France and Japan, that we appreciate especially the author's parallax of nationality. It is entirely true, as M. Weulersse argues, that a knowledge of French is for a Japanese of great practical utility. In addition to the use he can make of it when spoken in Europe and the Western world generally, he has, in the regions to the southwest, or in French peninsular Asia, a field of advantage—provided always that French tariffs do not rise too high. The author reaches the culmination of French vanity, or patriotism, when he says (p. 335), "To speak English for a Japanese is banal; to speak French is a distinction," but his common sense compels him to acknowledge that the reason for what may

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be called the official adoption of the English language was that of its world-wide use. He points out, without fear of contradiction, what he believes to be the cardinal fault of the Japanese, viz., its obscurity and lack of exactness. He thinks, therefore, that, on account of the superior clarity and precision of French, his own language ought to be that of the basis of culture and business in Japan. Of German, of course, he says naïvely that it is far from having the same merits of lucidity and music to the ear. He describes the country, the great cities, the adaptations of modern science and methods, and is particularly strong and clear in treating of the economic development of the Japanese Empire. He writes much more fully, however, on the subject of education, and his judgments are sane and praiseworthy, showing, indeed, that true French cosmopolitanism which we all admire. He objects to the abominable Briticism "Jap," and prefers the grand, ancient, sonorous, and distinctive title "Mikado." In our republican days it is hard to see any special dignity in the term "emperor," which describes one of a motley company of black, brown, yellow, and white figure-heads of power, on petty islands as well as in vast domains. The author is severe on the despotism of the Japanese father and husband in domestic life, but writes luminously and with sympathy of the position of woman. As French literature, apart from artistic themes, is not especially rich in literary pictures of Japan which have true perspective, and in which the *geisha* is not the all-overshadowing picture, this book will be welcomed as fresh, suggestive, and timely.

BOURINOT'S LORD ELGIN.

Lord Elgin. By Sir John George Bourinot. Toronto: George N. Morang & Co., Limited. 1903. 8vo, pp. vi., 276. With portrait. (Volume one of "The Makers of Canada" Series, edited by Duncan Campbell Scott and Pelham Edgar, Ph.D.)

Theodore Walrond's 'Letters and Journals of Lord Elgin' is a well-known work, and we believe is reckoned by Englishmen among the best of the political portraits. Little notice of it seems to have been taken by the late Sir John Bourinot, author of the work before us, for he refers to it only once, then not very respectfully, and miswrites the author's name. Sir John's own work, however, relates almost exclusively to the history of Canadian politics, a subject with which, having been long the clerk of the House of Commons, he was thoroughly competent to deal. His style is rather pleasantly redolent of his official position.

The Canadian situation with which Lord Elgin was sent as governor to deal, was the sequel of a twofold political storm which had passed over the country. There had been two rebellions, if they should not rather be called revolutions, contemporary yet distinct: one in British Canada, caused by the exclusive domination of the ultra-British and Tory junto nicknamed the Family Compact; the other in French Canada, justly designated in the Durham Report as a conflict of races—the conquered race striving to break the political yoke of the conqueror, who had monopolized office and power. Sir Francis Bond Head, the Governor of British Canada, was a traveller and writer of travels, astonished, as well he might be, at his own appointment. He was an honest, hotheaded fellow, well-meaning, and with nothing insidious about him. To compare his conduct with that of Lord Milner would be doing him a great injustice; but, like Lord Milner, he threw himself into the arms of a party, and thereby brought on a crash. The British Government, then in Liberal hands, dealt wisely and magnanimously with the crisis. It did not let loose upon the provinces the fury of martial law in the hands of inflamed partisans, hang people by the score, banish, fine, and disfranchise. It limited its measures of repression to the actual need. It sent out Durham to investigate and report; and, being informed by him in a very admirable state paper, that want of self-government had been the source of the outbreak, it granted self-government. The fruits of its policy are now seen.

When Elgin came out, though the storm was over, the waves were still running pretty high. The victorious Tories were incensed at being balked of their full measure of triumph over their foe. An act having been passed to indemnify unoffending parties whose property had been destroyed in the repression, Toryism was seized with a paroxysm of rage, and showed its loyalty by burning the Parliament House at Montreal and stoning the Governor, who had conformed to the new order of things by giving constitutionally, though it appears reluctantly, his consent to the obnoxious act. Elgin behaved with a prudence and dignity which must have had their effect, and calm, though not Tory complacency, was soon restored. Toryism in England sympathized with Toryism in Canada. Mr. Gladstone, still half-Tory, and, as Sir John Bourinot says, not well informed on the subject, characterized the Rebellion Losses bill as a bill for rewarding rebels. Carlyle also, from his point of view, was indignant. But Peel spoke the word of wisdom.

The transition from the old Colonial System—the rule of the Colonial Office through the representative of the Crown—to the new system of Colonial self-government was critical. The change had not been clearly and fully recognized even by the Colonial Office itself, which, especially when in Conservative hands, was inclined to slide back into the old system. Nor had it been fully understood by all Lord Elgin's predecessors. Lord Metcalfe especially, his ideas having been formed in the government of dependencies such as Jamaica and India, clung to the belief that he must rule personally, that the Ministers were his nominees, responsible to him, not to the people, and that his assent to a bill was personal, not constitutional; whence serious trouble had arisen. Lord Elgin thoroughly understood and well performed his part, which was to regulate and temper the transition, making the old system glide smoothly and quietly into the new. He was not to blame if all this trouble and complication was gratuitous and might have been avoided from the outset, so far at least as British Canada was concerned, by leaving people, who were perfectly competent, to manage their own affairs. The Government being now parliamentary and the Prime Minister being its responsible head, the Governor-General lags superfluous on the political scene, though what he can no longer do openly he is sometimes tempted or prompted by the Colonial Office to do underhand; as was seen when, partly by his personal influence, Canada was drawn into the South African war.

Canada was suffering, as Lord Durham had seen, from commercial depression, the consequence largely of exclusion from her natural market. This reached a climax when, free trade having won the day in England, the colonies were deprived of their preference and still left subject to the Navigation Laws. A large body of commercial men then signed a manifesto calling for redress, and, if redress were not granted, for annexation to the United States. To put an end to this movement in the best way, Elgin went to Washington and negotiated the Treaty of Reciprocity of which Canada enjoyed the benefit down to 1866, when its advantages were lost to both countries through the behavior of the ruling class in England towards the United States during the war of secession. He was probably helped by the Congressional representatives of the Slave Power, who feared that the annexation of Canada might turn the political balance in favor of the North. But he owed his success mainly to his own diplomatic skill—a little assisted, it might be, by his rank. The result was the immediate subsidence of the annexationist movement in Canada—a proof of the absurdity of the cry, now raised by Canadian manufacturers who profit by the tariff wall, that reciprocity would be followed by annexation.

The Reciprocity Treaty, as the work of a British diplomatist, may fairly be regarded as a set-off against any defaults of the British Foreign Office in its dealings with Canadian interests. But the notion that British diplomacy has neglected the interests of Canada, which Sir John Bourinot appears, with Canadians in general, angrily to cherish, seems not well founded. British diplomacy has always done for Canadian interests the best that diplomacy could do. That more should be done was impossible. The notion that the British people could be induced to go to war with the United States on a question of Canadian boundaries is absurd; and, of course, without presenting the alternative of war, no disputed claims could be enforced. When the Government of the Transvaal prayed for arbitration on the claim of suzerainty, its prayer was rejected on the singular ground that to consent to arbitration would be giving away the whole case, as in that instance it most assuredly would. If the American Government had chosen to follow this precedent in the case of the Alaska boundary, Canada would have had no redress. She could not have appealed to arms herself, and no British Government which had proposed to go to war about a boundary of the Yukon could have existed for twenty-four hours.

Canada now, angry at the partial loss of her cause in the Alaska boundary case, is calling for the concession of power to make her own treaties. Her Prime Minister at least puts forth that claim. To demand the treaty-making power is to demand the power of peace and war; and to demand the power of peace and war is to demand independent nationality. Great Britain would refuse to commit herself to the enforcement of treaties over the making of which she had no control. Foreign Governments would refuse to negotiate with any but a sovereign Power. "Never," says a leading Canadian journal, "did Can-

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ada bulk so largely in the eyes of the world." That may be, and it is a gratifying reflection. But bulk is not sovereignty, nor by itself, when peaceful negotiations fail, is it military force.

It seems likely that Elgin's influence exerted on behalf of Canada was greatly felt in the final abolition of the Navigation Laws, which pressed very injuriously on Canada, while by the triumph of free trade and the repeal of the Corn Laws she had lost protection for her grain. Adam Smith, treating political economy not as an abstract science but as a set of practical rules, allowed certain exceptions to his doctrine of free trade. Among them were the Navigation Laws, which he believed to be necessary to the seamanship and therefore to the defence of the nation. Free trade having gained the day, in the wake of the repeal of the Corn Laws came the repeal of the Navigation Laws. It was violently opposed by the shipping interest. Protectionism at Liverpool avenged itself by depriving of his seat in Parliament Cardwell, who had voted for repeal. But the result was that, even in this instance, free trade was justified of its children. Canadian commerce, relieved of the incubus, prospered anew. As Sir John Bourinot says, "the immediate results were a stimulus to the whole commerce of the Province, and an influx of shipping to the ports of the St. Lawrence." The British shipping trade, instead of being ruined as the protectionists predicted, became more prosperous than ever.

A necessary consequence of the general concession of self-government was the disestablishment of the State Church. To this also Elgin advised consent, perhaps with a sigh so far as he was personally concerned; for, though liberal, he was highly religious, and wished religion to be the basis of public education. Great tracts of land had been set apart as "clergy reserves." To secularize these became the grand aim of the Liberals. After a violent party struggle it was accomplished, and nothing was left to the Anglican Church in the way of public endowment save certain "rectories" made over to her by a rather questionable act of Sir George Colborne. The Provincial University at Toronto had been confined to the Church of England; its governing body and professors being required to subscribe her Thirty-nine Articles. This was now thrown open; whereupon Bishop Strachan, the bellicose head of the Anglican Church, and to a great extent of the political party of which Anglicanism was the creed, bounced out of the "Godless University" as he called it, and founded Trinity College, Toronto, as a place of pure Anglican education. Trinity College is now, under wiser auspices, entering into confederation with the Provincial University. The Anglican Church, however, albeit disestablished, has preserved something of the conscious dignity of the State Church, and a lurking impression, which occasionally betrays itself, that the other churches are dissenters. It has also preserved its political affinities and connection. Its Synod at Toronto the other day wound up with three cheers for Lord Roberts.

The name by which the Church of England was established in Canada was that of a Protestant church; and lawyers held that the Presbyterian Church of Scotland, being recognized by the State, was entitled to a share of the endowment. This is one item in the overwhelming body of historical evidence which proves that, whatever relics of Catholic ritual might lurk in the first prayer-book of Edward VI., the Church of England was historically not Catholic, but Protestant. The attempt to make out that the Church, while calling itself and believing itself to be Protestant, has been all the time unconsciously Catholic, can be sustained only by arguments which a court of law would dismiss with contempt if they were advanced in support of any ordinary title, and which are still less worthy of attention when tendered in support of a spiritual pedigree. The Pope, when he was solicited by the Ritualists for recognition, replied with crushing force that the Anglican Ordinal did not even pretend to confer the power of transubstantiation.

Elgin, though he had been successful in guiding the transition, was probably not sorry to retire with honor from the position, which no constitutional theories could make other than equivocal, of a governor who did not govern and might any day be compelled, by men in whom he did not confide, to assent to measures which he could not conscientiously approve. Men far inferior to him were better fitted for such a part. He was presently sent to China with a joint British and French expedition to coerce the hapless and helpless Chinese—a service which he evidently abhorred, and performed as mildly as he possibly could; and to India, where, touching at the time of the Sepoy mutiny and witnessing the frenzy of the conquerors' panic and vengeance, he moralized in a monitory strain on the relations between the conquering and the subject race. Indian government was his last sphere of action, and India was his grave.

Prefixed to the volume is a good portrait of a man in whose features wisdom and benevolence were impressed. The volume itself is tastefully got up, and does credit to the publishing enterprise of Canada.

THREE STUDIES IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.

The Elizabethan Lyric: A Study. By John Erskine. (Columbia University Studies in English, II.) 8vo, pp. xviii + 344.

Platonism in English Poetry of the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries. By John Smith Harrison. (Columbia University Studies in Comparative Literature.) 8vo, pp. xii + 235.

The English Heroic Play: A Critical Description of the Rhymed Tragedy of the Restoration. By Lewis Nathaniel Chase. (Columbia University Studies in Comparative Literature.) Columbia University Press (Macmillan). 8vo, pp. xiv + 250. 1903.

It is a natural result of the spread of English teaching in the last twenty-five years and especially of the more recent (still incomplete and tentative, but very remarkable) development of graduate research and study in the field of English and of general literature, that an increasing number and proportion of studies in literature, in interpretative criticism, and in literary history are emanating from the universities and are making their appeal to the public, general as well as academic. It is, of course, a question, and a question of two sides, how far the universities should permit themselves this appeal, even when the subjects treated, as in the three studies here considered, are conceivably of some general and popular interest. Address the public and you lower your standards, dilute your style, run the risk of the ad-captandum appeal—in short, "popularize" your matter. On the other hand, address the public and you perforce do away with pedantry and mere academicism, encourage literary style, and help to bring the universities nearer to the intelligent public.

It is another but a related question, too, whether the university monograph should seek popular book-form, with typography, paper, and binding of an artistic and expensive standard. Is not the practice of the German universities on the whole better? Granted that in all cases the doctor's thesis should be printed, are we not giving it a forced and factitious importance when we clothe it in all the costliness of form of a full-fledged book? On whom, in nine cases out of ten, does the burden of expense fall but on the one least able to bear it—the candidate himself? Such expenditures perhaps are justifiable only when the universities shall come to assume (as perhaps they should) the free printing of accepted monographs.

The departments of literature in Columbia University are to be congratulated on the high level of many of the recent studies issued under their care. Most of them have been excellent in plan; perhaps two or three of them have been less excellently corrected in detail; but all have had striking qualities of either literary and historical interest, or breadth of outlook and of generalization. The three studies here noticed are no exception. It would be difficult to suggest three subjects of greater interest or aptness for monograph treatment in the field of English. But the work and the results are not quite alike in all.

It is perhaps worth while to have an unfalteringly descriptive account of the Elizabethan Lyric. One wishes, however, that Mr. Erskine had seen fit to omit what is already in the literary histories and similar places (such as the most of chapters iii. and ix., for example), and had confined himself to literary criticism and to the discussion of new theses in the history of the subject of his study. For frequently he is not unskilful in criticism, and he makes several points of interest in literary history. His bibliography might be completer—he even ignores or is ignorant of Werner's 'Lyrik und Lyriker'; but in spite of this he enunciates a theory of lyric "unity" and of lyric "stimulus" that is suggestive of some of Werner's theories, as it is of Poe's, and that is sufficiently plausible in itself. It certainly serves the purpose of the author's formal analysis and criticism. Absolutely taken, however, we are not inclined to set much store by it. It postulates the conclusion that Spenser's 'Epithalamion' lacks lyric unity, and so is rather a series of lyrics than a single lyric poem. A similar ruling would probably follow for Pindar and the "prolonged lyric" generally. The sufficient answer is that, theory aside, hardly any poem makes a more unified emotional and artistic impression than Spenser's 'Epithalamion.' Nevertheless, on the whole, Mr. Erskine's work, in manner and method, is sympa-

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thetic and acute. There is a good study of the structure and movement of the Elegy, in chapter iv. Would that more space had been spared for this sort of thing and less for perfunctory description. So the analysis of Sidney's Sonnets and the study of the relations of Sidney's sequence to that of Daniel, and of Daniel's to Shakspere's in chapter v., the discussion of Spenser's lyric work generally, and the bit on Marlowe at pages 199, 200, are all distinctly clever. The author is unaccountably unappreciative of William Browne, a poet whom Keats, with good poet's reason, admired. While chapter vii. presents some new corrections of old theories of the relations of Elizabethan music and Elizabethan lyric poetry (somewhat overstated, it is true), as a whole it seems to be based upon too slight an original study of the subject. We do not quite understand the author's conclusions (p. 140) as to the disuse of the lute in Elizabethan times. The testimony of contemporary references, such as those in the drama, will hardly bear him out. We have to query also statements on pages 107, 128 (the priority of Sidney's sonnets: Sidney died in 1586), 207 ff., and 309. The chief defect of the work is that it attempts too much. Chapters vii. (The Song Books and Elizabethan Music) and ix. (Metrical Forms) would require separate monographs.

Mr. Harrison has chosen for treatment a subject long since suggested by Professor Saintsbury. Elizabethan Platonism was an outgrowth of the Italian humanistic interpretation of Plato and of Plato's disciple Plotinus. Mr. Harrison has fully recognized and developed this idea, and a large part of his work deals with the relationship and parallels between Ficino and such poets as Spenser, Sidney, Milton, Drummond, and Henry More. The connection exhibited between Spenser's 'Four Hymns' and Italian Platonism as expounded by Ficino is remarkably close. We do not quarrel with the author's exposition of these matters in general—it is sufficient; but we must regret that in a work of this sort, in view of the difficulty of access to most of his foreign material, he has not found more space for the citation of parallels and illustrative passages at length. There are a few errors. At pages 13 and 25, "canto" and "book" are confused in the references to Spenser. In the reference on page 38 why not name the author? And the attempt (p. 129) to connect Shakspere's one hundred and fifth sonnet with the Platonic identification of the good, the beautiful, and the true seems to us extremely tenuous. Nevertheless, although the author does not appear to have followed his subject into all its ramifications and to have exhausted its possibilities, his is evidently a good piece of work, and a real contribution.

The same thing may be said, only in a less degree, of the essay on the English Heroic Play—an ideal monograph subject, dealing as it does with the history of a literary type, restricted, definite, finished, and significant. Mr. Chase's work has been honestly and intelligently done, but the results are presented somewhat obscurely. The book lacks style, good expository style, and there is drag and poverty of phrasing throughout. Much of the rather lengthy analysis of plays leads to no very clear results. The space taken might better have been given to a study of the relations of this largely exotic literary type to its congeners and to its partial sources in France and Spain; this was to have been expected in one of a series of Studies in Comparative Literature. Indeed, the relation of some of the elements of the Heroic Play to the late Elizabethan drama of the Beaumont-Fletcher group has never yet been sufficiently studied. These deductions made, however, the substance of Mr. Chase's monograph is excellent. The Columbia method in the study of literature, we repeat, although touched with minor defects and requiring greater correction and a somewhat stricter ideal of scholarship in detail, is already producing valuable fruit. This fact students of literature in other institutions make haste to recognize and applaud.

FOUR BOOKS ON INDIA.

In the perennial trickle of books about India appear occasionally works neither dashed off by travellers nor compiled by statisticians, but written carefully, with knowledge and with artistic sense. Of this sort is the pleasant volume of sketches called 'Cities of India,' by the ex-director of Indian Records, G. W. Forrest, C.I.E. (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The author calls his essays "labors of love," and they are descriptive, not at all labored, of the life and history of the best-known Hindu towns, from Bombay east to Calcutta and south to Madras, arranged with reference to a tourist's convenience. There are fifteen sketches in all, and together they make a literary handbook with which future travellers to India will do well to provide themselves, while for those who stay at home they give a delightful sense of travelling in that country. The pictures, with which the book is plentifully supplied, seem like old friends, familiar to all those who have been in the atelier of Bourne & Shepherd. But there is nothing hackneyed about the text, which weaves the past and the present together in warm and living colors.

India has recently published several books about herself, one of which is likely to attract the attention of Occidental scholars. Several years ago B. G. Tilak of Poona acquired a sudden reputation through a book in which he sought to prove that the Rig Veda dated from the fourth millennium B. C. Not content with this, Tilak since then has occupied the time he spent within an English dungeon as a "sedition-monger" in expanding his former thesis, and has now produced the perfect fruit of his later study under the title 'The Arctic Home in the Vedas' (Poona: Kesari Press). In this work Tilak cites the Rig Veda and the Avesta to show that the ancient Hindus and Persians were depositories of records extending back to the interglacial period, and that the "home of the Aryans" was originally about the North Pole. Our ingenious countryman, the author of 'Paradise Found,' will not be ill-pleased to find texts thus dating back to the time of Paradise itself; and the supercilious scholars who have looked disdainfully on the Vedas as too modern to be compared with the records of Babylon and Egypt, will hide their diminished heads—when this startling thesis is proved. In the meantime, lest the ethnologist think that man's polar origin here receives historical confirmation, it may perhaps still be believed that the "long darkness" referred to in the Rig Veda is not a night of several months, but the darkness of death. With this understood, much else that appears to support the new contention becomes explicable without having recourse to the Quaternary Era in its Pleistocene period to account for the Hyperboreans.

The writings of the late Prof. Max Müller all circle about India, though sometimes at a far distance. The last work from his pen is a posthumous publication inaptly entitled 'The Silesian Horseherd' (Longmans, Green & Co.). It appears that an American named Fritz Menzel amused himself with writing an anonymous letter to "Max," in which he took occasion to jeer at the professor's religious views and incidentally at the views of metaphysicians generally, signing himself Pferdebürla. The publication of this letter, and a reply to it, together with other theological correspondence, resulted in sufficient material to make a little book, the main title of which is due to the Pferdebürla (who describes himself, however, as a cowherd!); while the sub-title, "Questions of the Hour Answered by F. Max Müller," gives the key to the contents as understood by the late F. M. Müller. That the author believed himself capable of answering the questions of the hour by the application of his favorite teaching, which inculcates the identity of thought and language, can easily be believed by any one who knows the unperturbed serenity with which Müller continued to apply this unscientific equation to the problems of mental philosophy from the time he wrote his first lectures to the end of his career. The general thesis, that thought is impossible without words, is here applied to the doctrine of the Logos, and "in the beginning was the Word" (as the thought of God) is put forth as a sufficient answer to all horseherds (from Menzel to Darwin) who hold that mental capacity is a product of evolution. How to understand miracles in such a way as to be scientific and yet remain a Christian is also a question of the hour answered in this book, and there may be readers who will find comfort in giving their faith the refuge of the doctrine here set forth. We are not to believe that Christ fed the thousands with a few loaves and fishes—only "women and children" could believe that; but as Christians we are to believe the story, nevertheless, understanding it to mean that Christ gave spiritual food to thousands. Thus we cut loose from the women and children without cutting loose from our faith in the "inspiration" of the Bible. By defining faith and inspiration aright, we escape both the Scylla of doubt and the Charybdis of dogmatism.

This notice of books anent India would be incomplete did it not include a reference to the translation of the Hindustani "tale of life in Delhi forty years ago," called 'The Bride's Mirror.' The original text, together with notes and a vocabulary, was published a few years ago and reviewed in the *Nation*. The translation now following is idiomatic and careful. A few footnotes are added, containing information useful to the foreign reader ("pyjamas, *i. e.*, trousers," is not a fair example), as well as a running correction, in terms of actual pronunciation, of the words spelled with historical accuracy in the text. As Mr. Ward only follows the pedantic affectation of

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many other writers in this particular, the comment we make on this practice is not aimed at him alone. It seems to be an absurdity to spell Panna Mal and then add, "pronounce Punna Mull"; to spell *faqir* and add "pronounce fukeer," etc., withal for every new instance and even twice for the same word! Why not write in the English text *begum*, as the English pronounce it, and not "begam," reserving closed *a* for the Hindustani text? Some writers even print "Pandit, pronounce pundit," though it would be as sensible to write "Pall Mall, pronounce Pell Mell." It is a trial of the reader's patience, if not of the writer's. Moreover, it is difficult to be consistent, and "Bâsu, pronounce barsoo," even raises a question of correctness; but Mr. Ward's *r* is apparently both part of a vowel and a consonant ("*zarda* pronounce *zurrda*"). The tale itself, though not interesting, is decent, being a moral novel intended to improve the minds of Hindu (pronounce Hindoo) maidens. It is about as exciting as are French novels of the same intent.

America in Literature. By George Edward Woodberry, Professor of Comparative Literature, Columbia University. Harper & Brothers. 1903. Pp. 253.

Professor Woodberry has brought together in this volume seven papers originally published in *Harper's Magazine* and in *Harper's Weekly*. One of them deals with the colonial period of our literary history; four with what the author calls "our nobler literature with its little western afterglow"; two present the author's estimate of our total literary achievement. Taken as a whole, these chapters sketch swiftly and unerringly, though with reference only to the greatest names, the literary development of America. But the book is not a history of literature in the ordinary sense. As the philosophers would say, the author's aim is normative rather than descriptive. He has undertaken—very appropriately for a professor of comparative literature—the task of appraising our poetic and prosaic wealth, of ranking us in the literary Mulhall. It need hardly be said that this is a perilous venture. Mr. Gosse attempted it for our poetry some years ago, and, by placing Longfellow somewhere "between Tegner and Runeberg," and dismissing Sidney Lanier's poems as the "elaborate and learned experiments of an exceedingly clever man," brought down anathema upon himself. But Mr. Gosse, being an alien, may have been prejudiced. Let us listen to one of our own kin, who may be expected to be very kind to our virtues, and to eschew that moroseness of critical temper which refuses to accept at their face value the watered stocks of enthusiasm. What is our literary rating on the books of such a critic?

From Mr. Woodberry we learn that, as compared with the English and the French, we are in literature distinctly second-rate. We have no Chaucer, no Milton, no Keats. Our authors are timid—they turn an apprehensive eye towards Europe; they lack inspiration; they lack passion; they lack power. Their spirits have not been stirred to the deeps beneath the lowest deeps by the great tragic mischiefs and the tears in mortal things. It is true we shall not wholly die in literature. We have literary virtues, though of the second rank, and our quality, such as it is, is singularly well sustained in our representative men. Our greatest names, Bryant, Irving, Cooper, Hawthorne, Longfellow, Emerson, Lowell, Poe—these eight and no others are admitted to the hierarchy—fall in one block just below the greatest names in English literature, and outrank every English man of letters of the second class. Moreover, in one respect we equal our rivals and in another we surpass them: we are as painstaking in our literary art as they are, and the ethical tone of our literature is far purer than that of any other nation.

At present, however, we are in the doldrums. Our literary activity passed its prime before the civil war, and the great writers have left no successors. No one of the present day is buoyed up by the consciousness of national life as the members of the elder group were sustained by the life of their local centres. Nay, more—and this is Professor Woodberry's most notable thesis—no American writer has at any time voiced adequately the spirit of the American nation. We recall at this point a remark of Mr. William Mason in his 'Memories of a Musical Life.' Mr. Mason says of Beethoven that his sonatas were unidiomatic of the instrument for which they were written. A like incongruity exists, so Professor Woodberry seems to say, between the spirit and the voice of the spirit of this country. Our literature is unidiomatic of the national life and ideals. This is a serious charge, for literature is nothing if not expressive of the life behind it. What we should do about it Professor Woodberry does not say. "The field is open," he proclaims, "and calls loudly for new champions." But where are the dragon's teeth, and who is to sow them?

Professor Woodberry's judgments and characterizations of authors and periods are almost without exception both felicitous and just. If he is somewhat less than just at any point, it is in his treatment of Whitman.

Fanny Burney. By Austin Dobson. (English Men of Letters Series.) The Macmillan Co. 1903.

The "English Men of Letters" series has already compromised its name by the addition of Sir Leslie Stephen's Life of George Eliot. The new volume on Fanny Burney shows that Mr. John Morley intends to make no distinction of sex, though his title seemed to imply one. Fanny Burney should by rights have taken precedence of George Eliot, for it was she who gave the franchise of fiction to women, made it respectable for a woman to write a novel, and so paved the way for Jane Austen, Maria Edgeworth, and the whole host of women novelists of to-day.

The life of the author of 'Evelina' is curiously divided in halves, so that she has two literary reputations—the one as Fanny Burney, the other as Madame d'Arblay. But the real break with literature, the moment that proved her to have no true vocation as a writer, came, not when she married her French *émigré*, but seven years earlier, when, like one of those hungry Greeklings whom Lucian pities and Juvenal satirizes, she exchanged her liberty and the society of the wits of her time for the proud position of dresser to the Queen. There was, in fact, about as much appreciation of literature at the English court as one of those wretched hireling Greek philosophers may have encountered among his Roman patrons. Macaulay's bitter philippic on the "sweet Queen" whose royal condescension nearly killed Fanny Burney, is not echoed by Mr. Austin Dobson. He seems to think that Fanny was not so ill-advised when she decided to mix the Queen's snuff instead of writing novels. At any rate, we owe to that decision a vivid if unpleasing picture of the backstairs life of an Anglo-German court, and an interesting proof that one vulgar woman can make a boarding-house atmosphere within the precincts of St. James's as elsewhere. In the society of Frau Schwellenberg, Fanny Burney lost what little vitality she had. But it was under other influences that she changed her style.

'Evelina,' on which her fame will always rest, was wholly her own. In her century, polite conversation was no doubt stilted when it was not, as in Swift's satire, a mere bandying of vulgar proverbs which were the equivalent of modern slang. When Lord Orville is asked his opinion of some waxworks:

"The mechanism," answered he, "is wonderfully ingenious; I am sorry it is turned to no better account; but its purport is so frivolous, so very remote from all aim at instruction or utility, that the sight of so fine a show only leaves a regret on the mind that so much work and so much ingenuity should not be better bestowed."

Nor is the sense of humor that of our age. Evelina is proud to be assured by her lover that, after their first meeting, "every succeeding time he saw me I appeared to something less and less disadvantage." All this was a faithful reflection of Fanny Burney's circle and her time. Unfortunately, Dr. Johnson took up the author of 'Evelina,' and, though Mr. Dobson seems to be right in denying Macaulay's statement that he actually had a hand in the composition of 'Cecilia,' it was there that the change began. 'Cecilia,' with its careful antithetic style and dragging periods, was the result of those long visits to Mrs. Thrale at Streatham. After her marriage, Fanny Burney lived long in France, content to be eclipsed as Madame d'Arblay. When she emerged to write her father's 'Memoirs,' her style was no longer to be excused as Johnsonese. This is how she describes her father's rheumatism;

"He was assaulted during his precipitated return by the rudest fierceness of wintry elemental strife; through which, with bad accommodations and innumerable accidents, he became a prey to the merciless pangs of the acutest spasmodic rheumatism, which barely suffered him to reach his home, ere, long and piteously, it confined him, a tortured prisoner, to his bed."

Of the 'Memoirs' Macaulay said: "The genius of Shakspere and Bacon united would not save a work so written from general derision." One may note, in passing, that Macaulay, with the inconsistency of the rhetorical critic, remarks of Addison in another essay: "Had he clothed his thoughts in the half-French style of Horace Walpole, or in the half-Latin style of Dr. Johnson, or in the half-German jargon of the present day, his genius would have triumphed over all faults of manner." Mr. Austin Dobson adds little to the famous *Edinburgh* 'Essay' which was written in the early forties, though his knowledge of

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eighteenth-century life enables him to give a detailed and interesting picture of the distinguished people with whom Fanny Burney passed the first half of her life. Her own age estimated the author of 'Evelina' too high at first and then too low. Her personality was not interesting, and Mr. Dobson can do nothing for it. Fanny Burney "overheard the judgment of posterity," and met her eclipse as impassively as she had suffered her effacement at court or her triumph with 'Evelina.' Mr. Dobson's opinion that her 'Diary' is her best work may be correct, but it was not shared by her contemporaries, and never will be the judgment of the general reader.

The Valet's Tragedy, and Other Studies. By Andrew Lang. With Illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1903.

This series of short essays is not marked by any unity of purpose if we may judge from the list of subjects, but a motive it does possess in Mr. Lang's unfailing love of the mysterious. If Scottish history furnishes him with such themes as 'Pickle the Spy,' the Casket Letters, and the Gowrie Conspiracy, his hankering after the dark and doubtful soon exhausts the plots of any single country. The commonplace detective deals with the present; the true artist seeks to force the secrets of the past. With Mr. Lang it is simply a question of a book or an essay. A book is more satisfactory, but then there are so many mysteries. Here he has given us within the compass of one volume twelve essays, each of which centres round a problem of evidence. As we all know, these investigations can be made extremely arid; but ingenuity, learning, and literary skill will carry a man to the heart of his audience even when they fail to cut all the knots. For example, most physicians will remain unconvinced by Mr. Lang's remarks upon the Voices of Jeanne d'Arc, but there are few who will not read the essay to the end.

While we shall avoid reprinting the table of contents, a hint of its attractions may be quickly given. The Man in the Iron Mask, the murder of Sir Edmund Berry Godfrey, Amy Robsart, the Voices of Jeanne d'Arc, and Shakespeare-Bacon—each of them a *cause célèbre*—are subjected in turn to Mr. Lang's cross-questioning, with results which are always clever and sometimes convincing. Among the subjects of less fame, the mystery of James de la Cloche, eldest son of Charles II., is the most prominent. As it is impossible for us to take up more than one of these studies in the obscure, we shall confine our brief notice to the Valet's Tragedy—*anglicè*, to the Man in the Iron Mask.

We pass by the well-known fact that the mask was made of black velvet, to consider a point which is at issue between Mr. Lang and M. Funck-Brentano. The Voltaire-Dumas version of the story is fantastic, and quite outside the pale of rational criticism at this time of day. So many other candidates besides the putative son of Anne of Austria have also dropped out of the race that the competition is now narrowed to Count Mattioli, a Mantuan politician, and Martin, the valet to Roux de Marsilly, who was tortured to death in Paris on June 22, 1669. M. Funck-Brentano supports Mattioli, and Mr. Lang the valet. Both men were imprisoned at Pinerolo and at Sainte-Marguerite. One of them died in the Bastile towards the close of 1703. Whether Mattioli or Martin was the survivor is an open question, but Mr. Lang shows conclusively that the legend arose out of the experiences of the French valet rather than of the Italian count.

We should be the last to magnify the importance of this episode. In itself it is of no historical moment, and it has become famous merely because it presents a puzzle. But, viewed under the above restriction, it is a puzzle which, having once interested Voltaire and Gibbon, still causes a certain amount of discussion. The salient facts seem to be as follows: Roux de Marsilly, a Huguenot, plotting in England against Louis XIV., was apprehended and cruelly put to death. His valet, whose real name was Martin, but whose prison name became Eustache Dauger, fell into the hands of the French ambassador at London, was smuggled across the Channel to Dunkirk, and thence transported with many precautions to the French fortress of Pinerolo in Piedmont. There he remained from 1669 to 1687, when he was removed to the Isles Sainte-Marguerite near Cannes. Mattioli's imprisonment at Pinerolo began in 1679, and he was transferred to Sainte-Marguerite in 1694. Mr. Lang thinks that he died there in the same year. M. Funck-Brentano considers that he was the prisoner who died in the Bastile and was *the* Mask. To cite the opposing evidence is beyond our purpose. Mr. Lang certainly makes out his case as regards the genesis of the legend. Whether or not Martin survived Mattioli is a minor question. The tragic part of the story is, that the valet may not have known the secret for which he was confined. After a hundred and fifty years of debate we reach this conclusion: "The long and mysterious captivity of Eustache Dauger . . . was the mere automatic result of the 'red tape' of the old French absolute monarchy. This wretch was caught in the toils of the system, and suffered to no purpose for no crime."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

An Examination of the Shelley Manuscripts in the Bodleian Library. By C. D. Locock. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 7s. 6d. net.

Augustin-Thierry, Gilbert. The Plot of the Placards at Rennes. (Conspirators and Police under Napoleon.) Translated by Arthur G. Chater. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners.

Baldwin, May. A Popular Girl. (Novel.) The Mershon Co. $1.

Barbèra, Piero. Editori e Autori: Studi e Passatempi di un Libraio. Florence: G. Barbèra. 4 lire.

Bonehill, Capt. Ralph. With Boone on the Frontier. (Novel.) The Mershon Co. $1.

Brereton, Capt. F. S. One of the Fighting Scouts. (A South African tale.)—Under the Star-Spangled Banner. (A tale of the Spanish War.) The Mershon Co. $1 each.

Bunyan's Pilgrim's Progress, illustrated by George Cruikshank. London: Oxford University Press; New York: Henry Frowde.

Burghclere, Lady Winifred. George Villiers, Second Duke of Buckingham. 1628-1687. (A Study in the History of the Restoration.) E. P. Dutton & Co. $6 net.

Chapman, Frank M. Color Key to North American Birds. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.50 net.

Charles Kingsley's Letters and Memories of His Life. Edited by his wife, with an introduction by Maurice Kingsley. 2 vols. J. F. Taylor & Co. $2.

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